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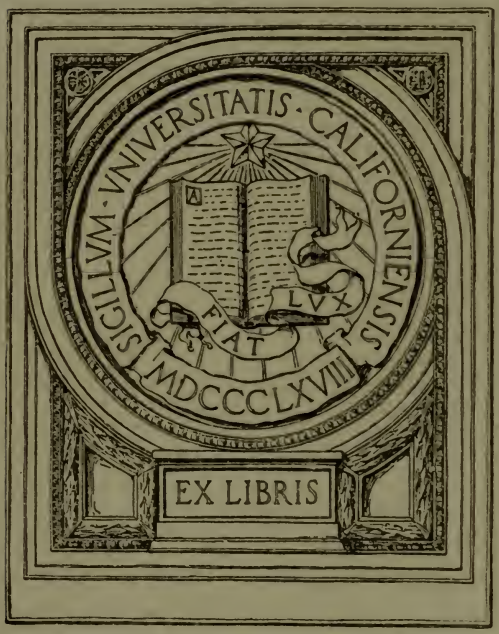

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THE CARE AND TRAINING OF CHILDREN

THE CARE AND TRAINING OF CHILDREN

By

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To

THE WEE LADDIE, KENNETH
AND
THE WEE LASSIE, LOTHIAN;
THE BEAUTIFUL CHILDREN OF A SPLENDID
MOTHER
THIS VOLUME IS INSCRIBED
AS AN APPRECIATION OF THEIR STIMULUS TO
THE AUTHOR'S WORK

PREFACE

FACTS; these are what the average busy parent wants. The author was imprest with this need shortly after his former book, "The Baby," was published; that little volume became the means by which was emphasized the demand for a book that should deal with the problems of the older child.

Time and again it was imprest upon the writer that a clear statement of general principles, written in a plain and practical way, and devoid of things which are yet beyond the possibilities of application by parents not specially trained, would result in cooperation on the part of most parents, and would eventually result in a clearer appreciation of the needs of the child and in the best practical method by which to meet immediately those needs.

This volume has been written with that object in view. Literary style, romance-weaving, everything in fact, has been subordinated to the giving of practical helpfulness.

It is practically true of child training and care that rapid advancement has been made at the cost of known values. With the substitution of the new for the old, or the up-to-date for the out-of-date, there has come a relinquishing of things that makes us stop and question whether the new is really an advance. Whatever is of value in this volume has been caught from the contagion of great characters, conscientious parents and many books. To these characters, these parents and these books all credit is due; the only claim made by the author is to have put the facts into form for a clearer understanding and for a practical application of them. The uniform courtesy of the publishers commands my gratitude and an expression of my hearty appreciation.

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INTRODUCTION

NO CHILD is exactly like another child. Even in the same family, with the hereditary influences, economic conditions and surroundings the same, the different children of that family will be unlike. This fact is so common and self-evident, that parents often speak of it. Because of it the lesson should be learned early that it is necessary to study each child individually. It is necessary, in the first place, to have in mind that there are general characteristics common to all children, but we must then fully appreciate, that there are characteristics and peculiarities which separate one child from another. These must be sought out and studied, because neglect to do so will result in failure in dealing with the individual child.

Every parent will know these characteris-

tics and peculiarities after a brief period of observation. Such observation should be undertaken when the child is alone and when associated with others. Comparisons should always be made between the characteristics of one particular child and then of other children.

Knowing the individual child, the parent will be prepared, as no one else can be, to cope with any condition which may arise in its training. Further than this, the knowledge so acquired will prove helpful in situations in which a stranger must be called in for help. In all matters pertaining to child study and child life, broad general principles can be laid down, but there must be, in addition to this, study of personality in order to carry principles out in detail. A careful reading of the several chapters of this book will readily show that, even a conscientious carrying out of the principles suggested in securing right conduct in children, will often result in failure unless the particular needs of the individual child are studied and met.

For instance, an attempt to guide or eradicate forms of viciousness will be immediately doomed to failure, unless there is the prompt recognition of the physical basis.

The part that disease of an apparently mild character may play in the formation and continuance of vicious habits is often unrecognized by parents. It is so easy to attribute a moral fault to moral weakness that the physical element may be overlooked and neglected. I am imprest more and more with the fact that children, as a general rule, are in greater need of attention to their hygienic surroundings, the perfecting of their nutrition and perchance the careful administration of a suitable tonic, than they are of discipline.

In following the suggestions contained in these chapters, the parent should not accept them as so many set rules, but should always consider them as helps to the solving of an individual problem. In practical use there must always come the modifications demanded by circumstances, in the various matters of clothing, diet, sleep, friends, amusements, and so forth, allowance should be made for the existing condition of things. But through it all there should come a recognition of the fact that the child's welfare demands the best that the parent can give; that no sacrifice that the parent makes in attaining the ideal will ever be wasted.

Used in this manner and in this spirit, the book will help to smooth over some of the rough places and in that measure make the child's development more symmetrical and his later life more efficient.

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I

THE CHILD'S ROOM

THE child's apartment will of necessity be determined somewhat by the size of the house and its character. Whenever possible, however, the child should have two rooms—a bedroom and a playroom. There are many features which will apply to both rooms, and before taking up the special qualifications of either, we will consider them together. Rooms which receive the most sunlight should be chosen. Thus, a room which has a southern exposure will best meet the requirements.

Ventilation

Ventilation is a very important problem. The rooms should be thoroughly aired at least once, and better twice, daily, summer and winter. And even tho this is done, it is necessary to secure a sufficient supply of fresh air in the intervals between the airings. There are several effective ways of doing this.

How to Ventilate

1. The upper sash may be brought to the bottom of the window, occupying the space previously occupied by the lower sash, and the lower one pushed clear to the top. If the hand be placed an inch or two from where the sashes meet, no draft will be felt; but if placed close to the glass of what is now the lower sash, a strong current of air will be felt. The one disadvantage of this is that if the child is young and persists in getting close to the window, the current of air strikes its body.

2. The upper sash may be lowered for six inches and a plain piece of board fitted to the space and the sashes closed top and bottom. This allows more air to enter than does the first method. The advantage of this is that the air is directed toward the top of the room and no drafts are felt.

3. There may be set in one of the panes of glass an old-fashioned ventilator. But ring ventilators are not easy to control and are unsightly.

4. A frame may be made to fit the open space of a lowered sash and several thicknesses of cheese-cloth tacked securely to it. When the sash is lowered, as it can be any number of inches, the cheese-cloth breaks all

drafts, and in wet weather, any excess of moisture is taken up by the cloth.

Any of these methods is so simple and effective that the value of its use must be self-evident.

The heating apparatus is so closely allied to the question of proper ventilation, that it will be considered at this point. There is much to be said in favor of heating by the open fireplace, or grate, if it be properly guarded by screens. By this method of heating, the largest degree of ventilation is secured with the smallest amount of exposure. But it is not always practicable, as the accommodations for the grate are not always at hand. A Franklin heater easily holds second place as a means of heating, or a good stove may take its place. In the cities, the usual heat supplied is that from a hot-air furnace, and altho far from ideal, it is a good source of heat if provided with proper ventilating facilities.

The Heating Apparatus

The child who is compelled to live in an atmosphere warmed by steam-heat is unfortunate, for frequently this is the main cause of the child being an easy victim to "colds." The rooms which the child occupies should never be heated by a gas-stove or oil-heater.

Temperature of the Room

Either of these methods of heating rapidly robs the air of its oxygen and the child is thereby compelled to breathe a hot, dry, vitiated atmosphere, with its consequent harmful results upon the system.

On general principles, a large volume of moderately heated air is much better suited to the needs of the child than a smaller amount of very hot air.

It is necessary that the temperature of the room be equitable. The commonest mistake is to have rooms too hot. The best temperature is between 65° and 68° Fahr. To register the temperature, the thermometer should be hung in the center of the room and about five feet from the floor, and not placed in one corner, as is the common practise.

The Night Temperature

At night, the temperature of the room should be lowered and there is a distinct advantage in having that temperature as near to 50° Fahr. as possible. Children do not take cold from having to sleep in a cool room; it is the lack of fresh air and the presence of drafts that favor the constant tendency to take cold.

Lighting

The room is best lighted with a small tallow candle or a night-lamp with a small

flame, if any light is necessary during the sleeping hours. And even with these, they should be so placed that any noxious gases may escape. It is always better, as the child gets to the age when it needs less attention at night, to have no light of any kind burning in the room. But during the time that light is needed in the evenings, use will have to be made of what is provided by the house—gas or electricity. Gas consumes a large quantity of the oxygen of the air, and so while burning it provision must be made for free ventilation.

A lamp (other than a small night-lamp) has no place in the child's room. It is dangerous because of its liability to be upset; its rapid vitiation of the air, and the probability of its giving off noxious gases.

Hot-housing and Deficient Ventilation

The first marked evidences of the fact that a child is kept too long in an overheated room will be that that child is easily affected by changes of temperature. Therefore, the child is the subject of frequent "colds" and the usual manner of procedure is to further coddle the child. Lack of fresh air is the cause of more colds than abundance of it. As all persons need fresh air just as freely and as regularly as they need fresh food,

the want of it will result quickly in impoverishment of the blood. This means that the whole system will have to suffer, for all organs and parts demand good rich blood to nourish them. It is easy to discern that with a poor blood supply, all of the tissues must be more or less starved and can not do their work freely or properly. This brings in its train a number of troubles which are all dependent upon the poor blood supply, and impoverished blood is mainly due to lack of proper ventilation.

Such a child will be somewhat pale and easily tired, will not be capable of doing the work of the average child, will be peevish or fretful and easily exhausted. As the physical weakness progresses, the mental and finally the moral attitude of the child changes, and not for the better. While such children do not lose much, if any, in weight, they are more or less flabby and are not capable of prolonged muscular or mental effort.

The Furnishing of the Room

As far as is practicable, all crevices and dust-collecting spaces should be done away with. Unless the floor is made of some hard wood, it may be covered with linoleum, with protective wood strips nailed at its edges so

as to prevent the accumulation of dust. Or the floor may be painted as fancy dictates and furnished with a rug. Such an arrangement makes cleaning the room an easier task than if a carpet is laid in the room. Boys especially are not overcareful, and more dirt is usually carried by them into their rooms than the average housewife will care to rid it of.

The corners of the room may be protected from dust by placing triangular pieces of tin in them. All that will be required to accomplish this will be four pieces of tin and four long, slender screw-nails.

In the matter of rugs, the work of cleaning is lightened if two small ones are used, but on the other hand, if the child plays on the floor, its game is interfered with. Upon the walls, paint is usually better than paper. If paper is preferred, the selection should be carefully made, for there is a distinct influence which even the furnishings of a room have upon the child. A room which is not attractive will foster in the child a carelessness which will result in an untidy room. Many of the wall-papers which are made today have a distinct value in the education of young children. The windows should be

provided with two shades, one white and one dark.

All furniture should be selected with the main object in view that it can be easily cleaned and dusted. This means that it must be as plain as possible. Chairs which are provided with cushions are far superior to upholstered ones.

Attractiveness Of the Room

Make the room just as attractive as is possible and the atractiveness should be of a different sort for a boy than for a girl. Boys are not fond of ornaments, except those which they choose themselves. Girls, on the other hand, are pleased with dainty things and love ornaments.

A window-seat is a continual source of pleasure to both boys and girls, and can be provided with very little expense. The seat may be made in the form of a box which will serve the extra purpose of a receptacle for various things.

To a considerable extent the child should be consulted as to what it shall have in the room, but its choice should be guided by the parent. At the same time there must not be too firm insistence upon carrying out the preconceived ideas of the parent. This is one way of adding to the attractiveness of

home and it appeals with particular force to boys.

The pictures should be rather inexpensive ones, for several reasons. Children delight in change, and that applies to pictures as well as to other things. If an expensive picture is in the room and a contagious disease affects the child, it is impractical to destroy the picture, and yet that may be desirable. As the child grows in knowledge, the pictures, if not expensive, may be changed to suit the child's need. Pictures

Boys like good pictures. When a little fellow fills his room with undesirable pictures, it is nearly always because others have not been obtainable. They like pictures with life in them, such as the Remington type, and their choice should be allowed in this.

Until the child is of such age that it can be trusted alone, portières or heavy curtains should be dispensed with. At best, they are industrious dust-collectors, and are more of a menace than a necessity. If they are used they should be of rather light material, and so placed that there is no possible danger from fire. Hung near to a gas-get, they are a constant source of danger.

Cleaning the Rooms

The rooms should be frequently and thoroughly cleaned, and in this procedure the child should be early taught to cooperate. All dusting must be done with a slightly dampened cloth or with a lamb's wool duster, both of which collect the dust and do not simply scatter it.

Slightly wet salt or sawdust scattered upon the floor before sweeping will prevent to a great extent the raising of dust. One of the various preparations which are made for this purpose, and which are very inexpensive, will prove effective, and in addition they bring out the colors of the carpet if the floor has such a covering.

The Playroom

There is much of imagination in the life of every child and this should be fostered and guided for use in later life. It is possible in most homes to give up one room to the child, or if not that, then a part of a room, an alcove or a corner of the room, so that it can be transformed into an attractive and educative spot for the child. It is not so much a question of size, as it is of a distinctive place. If possible, it should contain a cabinet for the toys. A box into which the child at the end of its play dumps all of its toys fosters only a semblance of order.

A cabinet is attractive in itself to the child (each parent will remember the subtle attractiveness and fascination of old cupboards and cabinets), and if each toy has its place and the child is early trained to put its toys away, order, a valuable asset, is acquired for later years.

Even in the matter of the selection of a desk (if such is provided) you will find that the child's point of view differs from yours. You think of the comfort of the child's position while writing; the child values its desk by the number of its pigeon-holes. If there is a choice made of wicker chairs, they can be renovated from time to time and a fresh coating of paint or varnish will add to the attractiveness.

Make the playroom as attractive as possible for the child, but remember that it is not alone as an amusement place that the room is planned. If thoughtfully arranged, there is a distinct educational value in its decorations and furnishings. It is possible that the bedroom of the child will at some time in its life become the sick-room. Therefore, in the furnishing of this room, there must be consideration of certain things:

1. It must be possible to strip it of most

of its furnishings without any great amount of labor or delay.

2. It must be capable of being kept scrupulously clean.

3. It must be easy to renovate it and it must be easily kept clean.

II

CLOTHING

THERE is no use in denying the influence of custom and fashion even in the matter of the child's clothing. One will have to be governed to some extent by the prevailing notions as decreed by those who have the fashioning of children's wear in hand, but much can be done by the intelligent parent in modifying these dictates so that the health and comfort of the child is not compromised.

As the child develops there will be a much wider field for choice and variety in the selection of the clothing and its materials, and this is particularly true in the case of girls. I believe that it is the part of wisdom to consult the child in regard to preferences, but always with the thought that the child's taste is to be educated and guided—not that he or she may unreservedly make a choice. It becomes quite necessary that the parent understand what the material of which clothing is made is supposed to do. Only in this way can a correct decision be made.

The main functions of clothing are:

The Main Functions of Clothing

1. To provide a covering for the body.

2. For protection against both heat and cold, and particularly the former.

3. For its decorative effect.

The second mentioned function is the most important. Ordinarily we think of clothing merely as a protection against the influence of cold. It is very important to remember in this connection that of all the heat that is generated in the human body, more than three-quarters is given off by the skin. The giving off of this heat is brought about through the influence of the clearly recognized processes of heat radiation, conduction and evaporation. If the clothing be of such material as would interfere with these processes, it fails in its most important functions and is therefore not entirely suited to the needs of the body.

Wool Clothing

There is abundance of experience to prove that the best protection is afforded against cold by wool. And further than this, the best protection is obtained from loosely woven wool; that is, one in which there is a good amount of air space between the fibers. Now, these two statements seem simple enough, but they need elucidation,

because they are of prime importance. Let us consider first, the underclothing.

Why is wool the best fabric? Because the fiber of wool acts in the process of weaving as no other material does. If the weaving is done loosely, the roughened ends of the wool fiber protrude to a considerable degree from the surface of the cloth or fabric. This protrusion brings hundreds of very fine ends in close contact with the surface of the body, and therefore keeps the fabric itself from coming in very close contact with the skin. This allows some air to remain between the fabric and the body surface, as well as between the fibers of the wool. This air is not in circulation, but remains still, and so it keeps out the cold better because still air is a poor conductor of cold. And further than this, wool is a much better absorber of moisture than most other fabrics. This quality is so marked that wool will not lose its elasticity even when it has absorbed its own weight of moisture. After it has become moist, evaporation from it takes place very slowly, and this is an added benefit, for with slow evaporation there is little liability of chilling the skin.

There is a decided disadvantage in wool

which will appeal strongly to every housekeeper; that is, its liability to be partly destroyed by the processes of washing and ironing or rubbing. The ends of the fiber are liable to break off and the whole fabric finally becomes harsh and shrunken. Care in the washing will eliminate some of this trouble or delay its occurrence for a time, but inevitably there must be some depreciation in the value of the fabric as an article of clothing. To a considerable extent this disadvantage has been overcome by the newer processes of manufacture, so that it is possible to-day to purchase materials which are guaranteed.

There is a tendency to accept the rather plausible arguments of makers of certain fabrics, and so we find persons accepting as a fact, that natural wools are superior to all others because they are as found in nature. We can not follow nature blindly, and we do not. We cook our food instead of eating it raw as other animals do. The sheep wears his wool on the outside, and as a matter of experience, if he is skinned, his pelt makes a warmer covering if the wool is worn on the inside. It is not so much the material as it is the way that it is woven.

It must allow of air between the fibers. We wear several garments instead of one. Why? Not only because of decoration and utility, but primarily because several layers of thin clothing, by allowing air between them, keep up a greater protection than would the same weight in one garment.

Comfortable Fitting of Clothes

Next in importance to the material of the clothing is the arrangement of garments, for no matter how suitable the material, if it is faulty in construction, it may be the cause of much discomfort to the wearer. If there is continued constriction at the waist, the organs in the upper part of the abdomen will be more or less displaced and retarded in their activities, and the viscera of the lower abdomen will be placed under unfavorable downward pressure. It occasionally happens that excessive constriction results in a congestion of the terminal blood-vessels of the nose, the ears and the eyes, all of which subsides if the pressure be stopt.

Constriction of the abdomen is apt to favor the development of ruptures, so that not infrequently such a calamity is occasioned through an unusual muscular effort while the abdomen is tightly constricted

with a belt. Constriction of the neck may be the exciting cause of severe headache or of congestion of the head.

Foot Coverings

The modern foot covering is very conducive to the retention of moisture and to chilling of the feet. It is almost impossible to secure a shoe which does not offend in this particular, as well as in its shape. The natural lines of the foot are not followed, for if they were, we would have a triangle with the broad base at the outspread toes and the apex at the heel. But our shoes are just the opposite, and are made of material that does not allow of ventilation. Patent leather is particularly objectionable on this latter account.

In the winter, with climatic changes coming as suddenly as they do, it is best to protect the child's legs with woolen stockings. It is a necessary precaution that the child's feet always be kept warm, for chilling of that portion of the body for any considerable length of time is a frequent cause of ill health. Only in the most extreme cold weather are leggings necessary. If worn to any great extent, they make the limbs less resistant to sudden changes, and are then a menace rather than a protection. Usually,

they are made of leather, or some equally harmful material, which does not allow of any ventilation, and the child's limbs are encased in a covering which limits the healthy action of the skin of those parts.

An ill-fitting garment or shoe, by making continued pressure at one point, or allowing rubbing, may be the cause of skin irritation in a sensitive child. This irritation reacts upon the little one's nervous system, and the child fidgets and fusses because of it, and may even become mildly ill from that cause. New flannel next to the skin will also do the same thing in nervous children with sensitive skins. The child should not be expected to fit its clothes, but the clothes should fit the child.

The Outer Clothing

The outer clothing of the child should be as well-fitting as possible, so as to promote the comfort of the body and convenience in exercises and games. The material may be tasteful, but it should not be so expensive that the parent will be fearful of the child "mussing" his clothes. While the clothes should fit, there must be no restriction of any part of the body, and clothes must be so planned that they will allow of the freest use of the different parts of the body. If a

boy or a girl is to enjoy its games, there must be clothing which does not interfere with the running, jumping, and other more or less violent exercise, which all normal children take.

Clothing and Exercise

It is a very difficult matter to regulate the child's clothing, so that, under the constantly varying conditions of violent exercise and subsequent rest, there will be proper protection. Until the time when the child is sensible enough to cooperate in this matter, and remove its excessive clothing when active, and replace it when a period of inactivity follows, most of our dependence for protection against chilling must be placed upon good underclothing. But even a very young child will protect himself in this situation, if the reason for it is explained to him. The difficulty is that most parents overdress their children, thinking that in so doing they prevent chilling of the body, but a child who is moist with perspiration is in far greater danger of taking cold, or being rapidly chilled, than is his playmate who has less clothing, but of quality which protects him.

Neck Wrappings

And now a word of caution in regard to the habit of bundling up the necks of children with the thought that it protects them

from taking cold. There is no more certain way of making a child's resistance to attacks of sore throat poor than using a scarf or kerchief about the neck. It renders the skin tender and non-resistant to changes of temperature, and adds a weakness instead of protection. If the child is subject to throat trouble, the neck-wrappings should be left off, and local bathing, as advised on page 57, indulged in.

III

DIET

THERE is a very marked difference in the lives and activities of the child and the adult. The difference makes it necessary that food be so selected that it shall best meet the peculiar needs of each.

The Amount of Food

The child's metabolism is much more active than that of the adult; he consumes more of the different elements of food and destroys much larger quantities than his elders. This is because the child must not alone supply its system with material to repair customary waste, but in addition it must supply the elements for continued growth and development.

These needs are such that the average child between the ages of five and fifteen years will demand a supply of almost twice the amount of proteid (compounds of hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, etc.), and contained largely in meats, vegetables, eggs, and milk, in proportion to his weight than an adult.

It must not be understood by this that a

child will require twice the amount of meat, for instance (which is very rich in proteid), as the average adult eats, because I have taken the trouble to determine that the average adult eats about four times the amount of meat which is actually required by his system. Therefore, accepting this average, the child's portion would not be twice that unnecessary amount, but twice the amount actually needed by the adult. Roughly speaking, then, the amount needed by the active child would be about one-half of what the average adult actually is in the habit of taking.

Eating with the Adults

It might seem from these statements that it would be a trying task to regulate the child's food to meet its needs and still have the child contented at the same table when with older members of the family. But this is not so, for if the parent understands in general the food value of certain articles of diet, it is a simple matter to adjust the meal to the needs of all.

A diet list looks a great deal better upon paper than the articles do on the dinner-plate. We can not lay down any hard and fast rules in regard to the matter, for what will benefit one child may harm another.

Even in the same person there are times when an article of diet will agree perfectly and be palatable, while at some other period it will cause distress. There are so many factors that affect the digestion of children (as activity, convalescence, individual peculiarity, habit, etc.) that the most that can be done is to give to the parent some general rules and allow the judgment of the parent and the needs of the child to influence the selection. This, of course, applies as much to the amount of the food taken as to its kind and variety.

Overeating

Overeating is a very common fault. There is no doubt that most people take more food than is necessary for them, and quite a number go further than that and partake of much more than is good for them. This is particularly true in childhood, when they have not had the benefits of the necessary experience and guidance. If more food is taken than is required, then additional work is thrown upon the eliminative forces of the system to get rid of it. Habit plays an important rôle just here, and many believe they could not get along well on less because habit has been so strong.

There is much greater danger that a child,

if left to itself, will eat too much, rather than that he will eat too little. It is impractical to lay down rules as to exact amounts of food which are required, for rules must be adapted to individual cases and under definite circumstances.

Mastication thoroughly done is very essential in partaking of food. It is commonly neglected because of the habit, which most children are allowed to acquire, of thinking that partaking of food is something which interferes too frequently with their games or outings. Mastication

In some children faulty preparation of food for the stomach is undertaken in another manner; they masticate the food well and then wash it down with rather copious swallows of some fluid, usually water. In its results this is as harmful as incomplete mastication. Both habits are apt to lead to disordered digestion, or a chronic state of indigestion in the stomach and the intestines. Even in the matter of the softer foods, as oatmeal, soups and the like, the food should be taken slowly, so that, in its slow passage through the mouth, it may be thoroughly saturated with the saliva. But perfect mastication can not be accomplished unless the

teeth are in fair condition, and if the teeth are poor, they must receive the attention which their importance demands.

Intervals Between Meals

When a variety of food is taken, it requires several hours for the stomach to complete its work; therefore, it is important that there be a sufficient time intervening between meals to allow the organ to get rest. It has been quite clearly demonstrated that an interval of from four to five hours is needful. If this required interval is persistently disregarded, the stomach can not completely perform its function and the health of the individual suffers.

Eating Between Meals

It is clearly to be seen, then, that eating habitually between meals is not consistent with the maintenance of health, as it places too constant work upon the stomach. The partaking of food between meals, or at a lessened interval than four or five hours, should be reserved for cases of illness, when a smaller amount of nourishment more frequently taken may be of benefit until strength is restored.

Eating Before Retiring

Eating before retiring is unnecessary in the life of the child, because there should be such a regulation of its hours that the necessity for food late at night will not arise.

If an early supper has been partaken of, and the child, from some unusual circumstances, has been kept up until a late hour, or five hours have elapsed between the time of retiring and the last meal, there can be no objection to giving some very light nourishment, such as a glass of milk (warmed) and a few crackers, or stale bread, or a cup of beef tea or broth. But such nourishment must be small in quantity and light, because during sleep the powers of digestion are not as active as usual, and the meal must therefore be one that is readily digested. If it it not, then sleep will be restless and unrefreshing.

Flesh Foods

Flesh foods of different kinds are rich in proteid. Their action on the body, when taken as articles of diet, is practically the same no matter what the kind of flesh or its color. It has been quite conclusively proven that white meats are similar in their action to red meats, and where one is forbidden, both should be. In all meats there is naturally some difference, because the digestibility of a particular kind of meat is influenced by the powers of the digestion in the child, the state of its health, the manner in which the meat is cooked and the part of the ani-

mal from which the meat is taken. But disregarding these differences, we might make the general statement that meat that is in the first place tender, and then well prepared, is easy of digestion, if taken in small enough quantities.

Fish

Fish occupies a peculiar place in the dietary of most people, being very highly prized, and the different kinds of fish are valuable articles of diet to most persons, but some few children never digest them well, and in this case, their addition to the diet should not be insisted upon. Eels, mackerel and salmon are rather hard to digest, because of the richness of their meat, but the leaner fish are nutritious and easily digested by children. As an article of diet, weight for weight, fish is of somewhat less value than meat. There is nothing, in fact, in the commonly accepted theory that a fish diet is particularly beneficial in its effect upon the nervous system and the brain.

Eggs

Eggs are not always well digested by children; in fact, there are many who do not relish them and can not digest them thoroughly. If they are well digested, they act as a most concentrated nourishment. A raw egg is about equal in point of nourish-

ment to a half-pint of milk, or to several ounces of meat. The more an egg is cooked the more its value as an article of diet is destroyed. An uncooked egg is the most nourishing, a very lightly cooked one somewhat less so, but when an egg is hard-boiled its food value is practically destroyed.

Of the two parts of the egg, the yolk offers the most nourishment, being richer in proteid, mineral matter and fat, while the white is less so, but more easily digested.

Milk

Milk is undoubtedly the most perfect food of which we know, having in it all the necessary elements for growth and maintenance. If its use as a regular article of diet in childhood was more common, the general health and tone of children would be better. The difficulty is that, when taken, it is usually administered in an improper way. It is not best to drink a glass of milk right down, or even to drink it slowly and without some other food with it. The proper way is to take it with a meal and make it a part of that meal. There is a very common belief that milk disagrees with most children and causes in them a state of constipation. It is not the food that does this, but the manner in which that food is taken.

When the supply of milk is known to be good, there is no necessity for heating it. Raw milk is the best, if its purity is assured. There may be times when the purity of the article may be in question and it is then wise to heat it, or even to boil it. But when so treated the milk is not digestible, nor so nutritious, as in the raw state.

Cream

Cream contains much more fat than ordinary milk, but is not so well taken care or by the stomach. It is not so rich in proteid material, which is an important element in growth.

Buttermilk

Buttermilk is also a splendid article of diet, altho not as nutritious as ordinary milk. It has distinct use in instances where an abundance of fat is not required, or where the fat can be supplied by other articles of diet. It becomes serviceable in those instances in which milk is known to disagree, or when the palate begins to rebel against its continuance. It can now be easily and artificially prepared in the home by the addition of a proper tablet to fresh milk. These tablets are obtainable at the drug-stores and the method of preparation is very simple.

Butter

Butter should be allowed to children

freely, for it is an excellent addition to the diet, and probably the most valuable and palatable of the fatty substances used at the table. It might be supposed from this that its value was not interfered with by frying, but this is not the case. When cooked, butter develops acids which render it very difficult of digestion, and that is one reason why so many children are unable to take fried foods more freely. These acids interfere with the function of the stomach, so that when butter is given it should be used in the fresh state.

Cheese contains about three times the amount of nourishment, ounce for ounce, that meat does. It is a valuable article of diet with certain restrictions. It must be well masticated (therefore the harder cheeses are best, as they require thorough mastication). It must be taken in moderation, and with other food (as bread or crackers), and not at the end of a meal, when it places a heavy tax upon the digestion. Cheese

Vegetables require long cooking, as a rule, to make them suitable as articles of diet. When so treated, they usually contain about one per cent of solid and ninety-nine per cent Vegetables

of water. This is especially true of green vegetables. Potatoes and some of the white vegetables are an exception to this rule, because they contain a very large amount of starch. Vegetables should not be taken in large amounts, or to the exclusion of other foods, because they do not furnish sufficient material for growth and development in childhood. As additions to the diet, they have some value, but if made the foundation of the meal they do not meet the requirements of the growing child.

Cereals

Cereals are rich in all of the elements needed for body development. In childhood they should form a very large part of the dietary. They are easily digested, if properly prepared. One of our chief difficulties is that we are living in an age of ready-cooked foods; cereals form a large percentage of these. Most of them are undercooked, altho the manufacturers would have us think otherwise. All cereals should be well cooked to secure their full advantage, and the variety should be such as will please the palate of the child. Most of them, when well cooked and served with milk, contain all the requirements for perfect nutrition. All through the period of childhood the

foundation of one meal should be a cereal and milk or cream. Usually this is best taken for breakfast and the supply should be liberal. The habit of taking it should be formed very early in life.

Fruits are composed largely of water (80 to 90 per cent), sugar, acids and cellulose. When thoroughly ripened and tender, they are valuable additions to the diet of the child, because they supply one element which is absent in other foods. But they must be given in small quantities and when the stomach is not filled by other foods. It this precaution is neglected, they are very apt to cause disturbances of the digestion, with the production of large quantities of gas. The most easy of digestion are peaches, apples, plums, cherries and grapes. Bananas are the most indigestible for most children. If given, this fruit should be peeled and then the edible part of the banana scraped so that all the fuzzy covering is removed. Fruit

The real nutritive value of the various fruits is small; therefore, they must be used simply as additions to the regular diet. Cooking of them further takes from their value, unless they are cooked with the coverings on. Fruits that can not be peeled

should be thoroughly cleansed, because otherwise they will retain impurities which are so common to all of them, and which adhere closely to their skins.

Bread

Bread is, of course, a very staple article in the child's diet. The question often arises as to whether brown or white bread is the better. At first this would seem easy to answer, because there is abundant literature on the subject, but it is unfortunately inspired by men who have certain kinds of bread or wheat to sell.

We must first consider the differences between leavened and aerated bread, because both brown and white bread may be so treated. Now, when any dough is treated with yeast, the yeast acts at the expense of sugar; that is, in furthering its own action, some of the sugar is destroyed. In this way, some of the nutrition is taken away. But, on the other hand, the yeast makes the bread less solid, and being so, it is more readily acted upon by the saliva and other digestive juices.

Difference Between Brown and White Breads

Without giving the exact figures, we can make the statement that brown bread contains more fat, more salts, more water and more cellulose than white bread, but it is not

so easy of digestion. White bread is more nutritious than brown bread, if similar amounts in weight and not in size are given. White bread is less irritating to the intestines than brown bread. Brown bread being coarser and less easy of digestion, is more of an irritant in the intestines than white bread, and thereby acts as a stimulant to the bowel function, relieving, in a measure, constipation and any digestive disturbances which may be dependent upon it. As an abundant supply of mineral constituents is required by the growing child, and brown bread supplies these, its use may be beneficial. If fats are poorly taken or digested, the use of brown bread will be of benefit, as it contains a larger percentage of fat than white bread. The chief use of brown bread, therefore, seems to be as a means of relieving a bowel that is sluggish in its action, and of supplying a fat when other fatty foods are disliked or disagree.

Water

Water is an important part of our dietary, and a fluid in sufficient amount is absolutely necessary for the carrying on of nutrition. For the average child, the smallest amount of fluid which should be taken in the twenty-four hours is two pints. Most of this should

be in the form of plain water. Of course, this will be further influenced by the activities and surroundings of the child, for during the warm season when perspiration takes place freely, or under conditions when the child is active, much more (even twice the amount) will be required.

Water Drinking Habit

An error which is so common that it does not at first attract attention, is the habit of drinking large quantities of water at meals. When water is taken before a meal, the contents of the stomach are at once prematurely diluted, and this results in over-stimulation of the organ, as well as a weakening of the power of the gastric juice. It is far better to have the food moistened by saliva, which has an important part to play in the process of digestion. If taken at meal-time, the best time for water-drinking is after the meal, and not before it.

When taken after the meal, it is less liable to do any harm, because the food has previously been well saturated with saliva and mixed with the gastric juices. But by far the best time for water-drinking is between meals, and particularly about one hour before the meal. At such times it is less liable to interfere with the digestive process.

Cold Fluids

Quantities of cold fluid should not be taken at any time, and particularly if the child is overheated. Even during the summer, the drinking of cold water should be discouraged. Iced water tastes good on a hot day, but it adds finally to the discomfiture caused by the weather. Cool water may be taken freely at proper times, but never iced water.

Coffee

Coffee is not in any manner a food, but to many persons it adds a distinct source of enjoyment to the meal. After the child has reached the school age and mental activity of the kind that school-life imposes has begun, a small amount of coffee, properly prepared and given at the right time, can do no harm. The amount should be small—one small cup in the twenty-four hours, and not more. It should be properly prepared; that is, it must be freshly made and not strong, and used without milk or cream in it. Plain coffee, when taken into the stomach, is disposed of in about one hour, but when even a small quantity of milk has been added, the time is extended to nearly three hours, and digestion is harder. There are two times during the day, at either one of which the child of school age may take coffee—with

Amount and Preparation

the breakfast, or at the midday meal. When taken to excess, it may result in a state of nervous excitement, indigestion and sleeplessness, which will seriously interfere with the health of the child.

Tea

Tea, like coffee, excites the functional activity of the nervous and muscular systems when taken in small amounts. The activity of the kidneys is excited by its action and that also of the skin. This action of tea would restrict its use when there is any digestive disturbance present, or when the child is nervous, or when there is kidney disease, or any disease or irritation of the skin. There are two chief ingredients of tea; thein and tannin, and the latter in excess is harmful. If tea is freshly infused, at the end of five minutes, standing without boiling, most of the thein is extracted and also about one-third of the tannin. If the infusion is allowed to go on, more and more tannin is extracted and the beverage becomes more bitter and harmful. To be allowed in the dietary, tea should be freshly and quickly prepared. The addition of milk is a benefit rather than otherwise. Tea should not be taken with a meal at which meat is the chief article of diet, as it interferes with the

Preparation of Tea

meat's digestion. It should never be taken while the stomach is empty or when it is nearly so. Taken continually, tea seems to exert an influence upon the bowel function, tending to constipation on account of the tannin.

Chocolate is much more nutritious than either tea or coffee, and is much less of a stimulant. It is very rich in albuminoids and fatty substances, as well as sugar, which is added by the manufacturers, and is therefore rich in nutriment. Chocolate

It is a far superior beverage for children of all ages than either tea or coffee and may be taken rather freely by them. If the child has a rheumatic tendency, or is of rheumatic parentage, the use of chocolate (because of its sugar) should be restricted, if not entirely stopt.

Candy should be considered under the subject of diet. Practically every child has a craving for sweets, and the proper use of candy adds to the joys of childhood as surely as its improper use adds to pains at the same period of life. I believe that every child should have its natural craving for sugar at least partially satisfied, unless there is some condition, such as rheuma- Candy

tism, which forbids its use. Candy is one means of supplying this valuable nutriment. It must, however, be given in moderation and at the proper times.

When to Give Candy

If given before a meal, sweets are quite certain to disturb the digestion and take away the appetite; therefore, they must be forbidden at this time. If given directly after a meal, they act unfavorably also, but to a lesser degree. The best time to give them is from one to two hours after a meal, for at that time they are best digested and are less liable to prove troublesome. The ordinary cheap colored candies should not be allowed. The best is the cheapest in the long run, and even a careful selection must be made of the best. A choice can be made of such candies as Iceland moss, sweet chocolate, plain taffies and molasses candies. There is an advantage in candies that last for a long time, because the child will not be tempted to overindulgence. They should not be given just before the time of retiring, as this will result in disturbed rest.

The Appetite

The appetite may be an indicator of the child's general condition. When a child does not partake eagerly of its food, there may be some physical fault. Among chil-

dren of a nervous temperament this is particularly the case. They appear at the table as tho they were ravenous for food, and yet, after partaking of a few morsels, appear satisfied. Or they may crave, and ask for, those things which are known to be hard of digestion and unsuitable for them, and the sight or mention of good, wholesome food seems to disgust them.

Dislike for Food

Many children will take meats eagerly, but will not eat other food. This is a very perplexing situation. If food that is heartily disliked is forced upon such a child, one of two things will happen; the disgust for that article of diet will be increased, or the food will be swallowed as quickly as possible to get rid of it. This latter procedure will inevitably be followed by the usual consequences of bolting the food—indigestion. Both of these we should wish to avoid. There must be a clear distinction made between what the child heartily dislikes and what a mere whim or daintiness dictates that he shall eat.

Distinction Between Dislike and Whim

It is not difficult to distinguish between the two, and when it is determined that disgust for a certain article is not inborn, but is less intense in its degree and amounts only to

a whim, the capriciousness of the child should be brought under control at once and that article of diet retained in its bill-of-fare.

The best method of which I know is, in every instance in which there is an aversion to a certain food, to force the child to eat at least a small portion of it. If the dislike is the result of a whim, the child will soon lose it and will afterward eat more heartily of that particular article. If the food is absolutely repugnant, it will bolt the small amount and continue to do so indefinitely as long as it remains in its dietary, but the small amount so taken and bolted will not lead to any serious digestive disturbances. There is one quite certain way to create dislike for a certain article of food in a child, and that is to give a nauseous medicine in it. The child will ever afterward associate the taking of that food with the taking of the medicine. When medicines are required, they should be given in some other manner than with food.

IV

BATHING

DIRT is dangerous, not simply because it is earth, but because it is often composed of excrement. To be clean is not merely an esthetic adornment, even tho it be the result of fixt habit and training; it is a necessary sanitary measure. In a sense, to be clean is to be free from infectious disease, for germs are multiplied in filth. Personal cleanliness is far more important than public cleanliness, for without the former the latter is of little avail, and fails in its purpose.

It has been the sad experience of the race that dirt is a constant source of danger. Abhorrence of dirt and love of cleanliness, which have become so gradually established among civilized peoples, are undoubtedly due in large measure to this experience in the past.

Systematic Bathing

Systematic or regular bathing should be indulged in, not only because it is required for cleanliness, but because a most bene-

ficial effect is thereby produced upon the whole system. This applies with special force to young persons, because their physical activities make tissue changes more rapid, and the activity of the skin is, therefore, of prime importance. Through bathing, the skin is not only cleaned but stimulated. This is important, because the skin has many functions. It is an excretory organ, just as truly as the bowels or kidneys. Through its action as such it rids the body of a large amount of carbonic acid, urea and water.

Functions of the Skin

These waste products must be partly eliminated from the body through the skin, or else the work which it should do will be thrown upon some other organ, notably the kidneys, and cause overexertion in those parts. If the pores of the skin become clogged with excreted material, or if an accumulation of material from outside sources is allowed to collect, a very important function is interfered with. The necessity for frequent cleansing must, therefore, be apparent without unnecessary argument.

Skin: as a Heat Regulator

The skin is also a heat regulator. When the external temperature is high, radiation of heat is favored by a clean, healthy skin,

and when the temperature is low, heat is kept more or less within the body by similar action of the skin.

Liberal and systematic use of large quantities of water with the possible addition of a good toilet soap is the best and safest means to insure cleanliness and, therefore, the health of the skin. If added to this use of soap and water, there is more or less brisk rubbing, a stimulation of the skin's activities is produced which will further promote its healthful functions. The rubbing should be sufficiently long continued and brisk enough to cause a perceptible reaction of the skin, which will be evidenced by the appearance of a fine blush to the surface and a sensation of warmth and glow in the skin.

The less one has to do with the various inunctions, oils and powders, which are recommended so freely, the better.

Frequency of Bathing

It is an excellent plan to have children bathe daily, when possible. In this way, a habit of regularity is formed and the skin is constantly kept clean and invigorated. But where the conveniences are such that the child can not bathe every day, then the warm bath (see page 54) should be given twice during the week. The warm bath is

very cleansing to the skin and adds to the healthfulness of that structure when daily bathing is impossible. But it must be given under the precautions suggested, so as to get its most beneficial effects.

Out-of-door Bathing

When surf-bathing is indulged in, or bathing out-of-doors in fresh water, the child should be allowed to enter the water only once daily. That is, there may be a time for play or games on shore, then a dip lasting for a few minutes; then another time of play and perhaps one more dip, but this must not be repeated for a long period. Such a procedure in the morning and again in the afternoon would prove harmful. If a time is to be selected, morning hours are the better.

Temperature of Bath

After the child is three years old, the temperature of the bath should be between 80° and 85° Fahr. A year later (or at four years), the temperature may be still further reduced to 70°, provided the child is robust and in health. In older children, a lower temperature may be of benefit, but after we begin to reduce the temperature below 70° Fahr., we must consult the feelings of the child more or less, for there exist marked individual differences in the reaction

to cold baths as children develop. Many are benefited by lower temperature, but occasionally any attempt to reduce it will result in shock and the child leaves the bath unrefreshed and deprest.

The Tub Bath

In older children, I find that a very acceptable plan is to have a tub partly filled with water and left standing for two or three hours before the bath is taken. In this way the water approximates the temperature of the room and, unless the room be a cold one, there is no shock to the child; he leaves the bath invigorated and fresh.

If, after the taking of a bath, the child looks blue, is deprest, shivering or tired, that bath has done him no good, and may possibly be doing him harm. The cause may be in the fact that the child was in the water too long, or the temperature of the water was too low. Until the cause is found, the bathing should not be repeated.

To know that the child has been getting the full benefit of its bath, we should find him after the bath lively and invigorated. There should be no blueness to the skin, nor any inclination to shivering or coldness.

Cold Sponge or Shower Baths

The cold sponge- or shower-bath is more beneficial, if given in the morning before

breakfast. It is of particular value in delicate children who can not take the full bath, or in those who take cold readily. The room in which the bath is given should have been previously warmed. Then the child should be placed standing in enough warm water to cover the feet up to the ankles. A large bath-sponge should then be saturated with water at a temperature of 50° Fahr., and be squeezed three or four times over the chest and back, while light friction is applied with a free hand. The whole operation must not exceed a half-minute. Then comes the most important part of the bath—the rubbing with a rough towel to secure a healthy reaction. The skin should show a healthy reaction, as indicated by a fine blush, and the child should feel a glow which is invigorating. The rapidity with which the sponging is done, and the thoroughness with which the rubbing is accomplished, and reaction in the skin is excited, are what give this bath its value.

Warm Baths

Once or twice a week, the child may have a warm bath, and this should always be given in the late part of the day. For young children (up to five years), who retire early, the best plan is to give the warm bath di-

rectly before the evening meal. Then when the little one has been rubbed dry and well wrapt, he is ready for his supper. When his appetite has been satisfied by a light meal, he will be ready for bed and will immediately fall into a deep, quiet sleep, which will be most beneficial because of his clean, active skin.

If the warm bath was given to a very young child after the evening meal, it would keep him up too late, for bathing can not be indulged in safely until two hours after a meal. In the case of an older child, the bath might be taken at bedtime, if that hour came at least two hours after the last meal.

Surf-bathing

Bathing in the surf is quite a different matter from taking a bath at home in salt water, no matter how carefully it is prepared. The influence of the salt water itself is small. The skin does not absorb the salt, and there does not seem to be any physiological basis upon which we can make the statement that salt water is any more beneficial than fresh water.

In many instances, if one is told to bathe in water with salt in it, the procedure will be completely and carefully carried out be-

cause of its novelty or attractiveness. But if the same care and thoroughness were used with unsalted water, the results would be just as beneficial.

Advantages of Surf Bathing

The advantages of surf-bathing are that the exercise is taken while the child is out-of-doors. Exercise of a nature which brings every muscle into play is brought about by the resistance to moving water, and the breaking of the waves liberates ozone in large quantity, which, taken in by the lungs, exhilarates the whole system. After the child is five years of age, it may be safely taken into an ordinary surf; but, even before this, he may well be prepared for it by being made accustomed to the water.

Overcoming Fear of Surf

Usually this will have to be done very gradually. The best method is to prepare the child for its dip and then, to a very great extent, disregard its natural fear of the water. Encourage its entrance into the water by example, but never lead a child forcibly into that of which it has a fear. I can not be too strong in my condemnation of the brutal practise of an adult forcing a screaming, struggling, badly frightened child into the water. The terror which the little one suffers is great—just as great as

would be the terror of the adult in case he were about to be drowned. Such a practise severely shocks the nervous system of the child and incalculable harm may be done. It will take the passing of years in many instances to eradicate the dread which the child has thus acquired of water. This may be created in a few minutes of brutality stalking ahead under the mask of giving instruction.

Local Bathing

In children who are subject to sore throat and who catch colds readily, much may be done in the line of prevention by local bathing with cold water. The temperature should be between 40° and 50° Fahr., and the water applied quickly with a cloth or sponge over the whole of the neck and the upper parts of the chest and back. This must be done so quickly that there remains no time for chilling, and should be followed immediately with brisk friction over the parts with a flesh-brush or a rough towel. The best time to do this is in the morning before breakfast.

The Bran Bath

If the child's skin at any time shows signs of eruption, the bran bath should be substituted for the regular bathing. For the bran bath, place one pound of bran in

a loose bag and put it in the bath-water until thoroughly soaked. Then for five minutes squeeze it over the water, after which the water will become more or less clouded and the bath is ready for use.

V

SLEEP

ALL healthy children, like adults, vary in the amount of sleep they require. This makes attention to individual needs a necessity. The tired organism demands a period of physiological rest, during which there can be repair to the fatigue changes which are dependent upon cell activity. This rest is called sleep.

There can be little question that a proper amount of sleep, taken under favorable conditions, is a matter of great importance and is of vital necessity to the well-being and proper development of all children. This is particularly true during certain periods in the life of the child, when the physical, or intellectual, functions are subjected to any influence which places an extra strain upon them.

The Need for Sleep

If one has a clear conception of what sleep is and of its necessity, there will be better appreciation of its value. Practically every organ of the body rests or sleeps. Even the heart and lungs, which at first

thought seem to be constantly at work, have their respective periods of repose. The heart has a well-known and definite period of rest between each muscular effort of the organ. Short as the time is, it is still actually a period during which the heart may be said to sleep. Nearly every one has recognized for himself that, after every expiration, there is a period in which the muscles of the chest are inactive and at rest. We might go on and enumerate instance upon instance to elaborate this point. But, further than this, during the time when the child sleeps, the heart, lungs and other organs of the body take on a much lessened activity. Such rest is absolutely essential for every organ of the body. It is a readily demonstrated fact that the body can do better without food than without rest.

Physiological Results of Activity

When any organ of the body is at rest, it demands less blood supply than when active. When there is activity of an organ, there is constant wear and tear going on, and that creates a demand for an increased amount of blood in that part. Then, when the activity is over, fatigue takes place and may be felt, and the amount of blood in the part is gradually reduced. For example, when food is

taken into the stomach, more blood is immediately demanded by that organ; its membranes, which have formerly been pale during the period of rest, become much reddened, and the activity of the whole organ is greatly increased. But when the process of digestion has been completed, the activity of the organ subsides and the supply of blood is gradually withdrawn.

A similar process takes place in the brain. When that organ is active during the waking hours of the child, there is more blood in the organ than during the time of perfect repose. This is one reason why strong mental effort should not be undertaken just before retiring. An appreciation of a few physiological facts will indicate to the parent the need of proper sleep for the child:

Physiological Facts Regarding Sleep

1. There must be a reasonable amount of exercise—sufficient to cause slight fatigue. If the fatigue is carried to the point of exhaustion, there will be continued congestion and the child can not sleep well.

2. During the period immediately preceding sleep, there should occur nothing which will cause undue excitement, or emotion, because that will drive more blood to the brain and produce wakefulness.

3. The room should be darkened and quiet, because a light room, or a noisy environment, is not conducive to mental quietude.

4. The air of the sleeping apartment must be fresh and cool, so as to favor perfect oxidation of the blood through the lungs.

5. The clothing must be sufficiently warm, and of such a character as to help the activity of the skin, and in no manner hinder its action. Warm clothing does not mean heavy bed coverings, for these in themselves may disturb rest.

The Time to Be Spent in Sleep

As has already been stated, there are individual peculiarities in regard to the time required for sleep, but there are also some clearly defined averages which it is safe to follow. Most children suffer from too little sleep, and it is common experience that a child will often overeat but rarely oversleep. Until the end of the fourth year, the child should be encouraged to spend at least eleven or twelve hours in sleep. Between the fourth and sixth years, ten to eleven hours is a good average for the normal child. From the sixth to the thirteenth year, from eight to ten hours of sleep are re-

quired according to the activity and peculiarity of the child.

Lying in Bed is not Sleeping

But we, as parents, must have a clear idea of the difference between lying in bed and sleeping. Many children get into the habit of lying in bed while awake, and this must be discouraged. After a child of any age is thoroughly awake, it should not be allowed to lie inactive in bed. Its mind must be immediately occupied in some healthful manner, even tho the occupation be very simple. If a child is left to its own inclinations in this regard, there is danger that it may give rise to mental states which are not conducive to good morals or healthy thoughts; habits are thus easily formed which will later on injure both the health and morals of the child.

As a matter of general principle, early sleepers should be early risers, and certainly those children who wake early should rise early, or have the mind well occupied.

Working Before Breakfast

No work which is at all exacting or difficult should be undertaken by the child before breakfast, and this rule applies to mental effort as surely as to physical. If the curriculum of the child's school demands study in the early morning, it should be pre-

pared for such mental effort by a suitable meal. There can be no objection to a short walk, or to some form of light exercise at this time, but the more serious duties of the day must be delayed until after the morning meal.

Disturbances of Sleep

During the first hour or two of sleep it is most profound, and during, or soon after, the second hour the heaviness of sleep is gradually lessened, so that after that it does not require so strong a stimulus to awaken the child. There are many things which will interfere with the proper rest of the child, and these should be recognized as early as possible and corrected.

Restlessness in Sleep

Restless sleep is evidenced by the child remaining asleep and frequently changing its position in bed. The most frequent cause is the presence of nasal obstructions. These may be due to enlarged tonsils, or to adenoids (see page 100). It is particularly suggestive of this condition, if the child is unable to lie upon the back for any length of time and if sleep is accompanied by snoring.

In children who have no nasal obstruction, restless sleep is very commonly due to an overstrained and excited nervous system. If restlessness is marked early in the evening

and is later followed by quiet sleep, it should suggest the possibility of pinworms as the cause, for these parasites feed at the rectum when the child first retires and later migrate higher up in the bowel, causing there no disturbance.

Disturbed Sleep

When the child wakens frequently, this is generally due to nervous irritability. Not infrequently this depends upon poor or improper nourishment. Careful consideration should be given to the question of diet, for it may be insufficient in amount, or of such character that it is not easily digested. Fully half the instances of disturbed sleep are due to this one cause. If the sleeping apartment is overheated, or is poorly ventilated, so that the child is robbed during sleep of good, fresh air, or the bed coverings are insufficient or uncomfortable, this will result in disturbed sleep. Naturally, with these causes present, any undue excitement will aggravate the trouble.

Uneasy Sleep

When the child is restless and easily aroused, uneasy sleep has indigestion as its most common cause. It is a common mistake to allow children to partake of a hearty meal late in the day. Of course, the possibility of the bites of insects must be borne

in mind as a cause. A child who is suffering from an impoverished condition of the blood will always experience uneasy sleep, and this uneasiness may be the first thing to attract attention to the fact that the child's blood is poor. Such children tire readily and may be more or less pale in color.

Night Terrors

Night terrors are due to a fault in the nervous system which makes it easily excited by any slight irritation, even tho that irritation be in some remote part of the body. The child awakens suddenly with violent screaming and gives abundant evidence of great fear. This may be repeated night after night, or at less frequent intervals. Night terrors usually attack children between the ages of three and eight years, and in nearly every instance the attack comes on within two or three hours after the child has retired.

The face of the child shows the extreme terror which he is in; his eyes are widely opened and generally fixt upon one object. Sometimes a clue is given to what frightened the child by his crying out the name of the thing or person. During the attack the child will cling to others for protection. This period of extreme terror lasts usually

only a few minutes, but it may be prolonged to nearly half an hour. Following this is a period during which the child recognizes persons and his surroundings, but for a considerable time he remains in a state of mild fear and dreads to be left alone. During the attack, the child may wet the bed or, directly following it, a large amount of almost colorless urine may be voided.

Night terrors should never be allowed to continue untreated. They are indications that there is a serious fault in the nervous system, and this should receive the most careful and thorough consideration.

Sleep-walking

Sleep-walking is somewhat closely allied to night terrors, because both have as their active causes a similar state of the nervous system, but in different degree. There is such a fascination about the possibilities of sleep-walking, that many wonderful stories are repeated (and in the repetition they grow) of remarkable and impossible things which are done by persons so affected. While this is not an uncommon complaint among children, still they rarely perform more than the most simple and harmless acts. They may walk or run about the room, but seldom do more complicated acts. When

awakened, they are not conscious of what has taken place. There is absolutely no danger in waking a sleep-walker, for the shock of doing so is no greater than that of awakening any sleeping child.

VI

THE BOWELS

IN order that the child may enjoy a healthy physical condition, it is very necessary that the bowels be evacuated satisfactorily at least once during the twenty-four hours. However, it is not at all unusual for some children to have two evacuations during that period. But if a child has more than two bowel movements during the day, it is suggestive that something is wrong, and this must receive early attention.

The tendency of the bowels to be evacuated once daily is further emphasized by the fact that, under normal conditions, the time of day at which the bowel function is performed is approximately the same. This normal regularity of the bowel may be interfered with by acquiring the habit of carelessness in regard to the function. The child can not readily see the necessity for attention to this important function when it interferes with its pleasure or its play. And so the habit of neglect is easily acquired.

But to prevent a condition of chronic or Influence of Habit

habitual constipation the habit of regularity must be insisted upon.

It is a well recognized fact that the introduction of a quantity of food into the stomach, after a fast which has lasted for several hours, will almost immediately increase the activity of the intestines. This fact may be made use of in the encouragement of regularity, for there can be no better time of the day to make the performance of the act easy than just after the morning meal.

At that time most of the elements are present for the easy accomplishment of the act. There has been the long fast through the night; the partaking of a meal with its stimulating effect upon the activity of the bowel, and the time of day is such that nothing is likely to interfere with the act.

There should be a definate period of each day set apart for attention to this function. Whatever time of day is finally selected, it must be such as can be persisted in every day. This must be a part of every child's training. And after the time has been selected, nothing should be allowed to interfere with it, for a condition or habit of constipation once established tends to continue

and become more and more difficult of overcoming.

There need not be a set hour (that is, by the clock), but there must be a set time (as related to some meal), and that time should be such as is most available each day. The hurry to get away to school, or out to play, should never be tolerated as an excuse for neglect. Even one single infraction may be the starting-point of a habit of neglect which will ultimately affect the health and comfort of the child.

Habitual (Chronic) Constipation

Habitual constipation is a very common complaint in childhood, and shows its baneful effects during that period and later in life. It is no exaggeration to state that fully ninety per cent of cases are the result of habit; that is, the habit of regularity has been interfered with and the condition brought about in that way. It is not always easy to recognize the existence of habitual constipation. Most persons think that constipation only exists when the bowels have not been evacuated as frequently as usual.

Constipation may be said to be present, not alone when the bowel movements are lessened in number, but when the act of evacuation is much more difficult of accom-

plishment than usual, when the stool is much drier than normal, and when the total amount which should be passed is very much reduced. Two or more of these factors may be present at the same time.

Habit and a faulty diet are the causes of nearly all cases of habitual constipation. And when faulty diet is the cause, it is generally because the food is too soft, too little water is taken or there is drinking at wrong times. Soft food being one of the causes of this condition, in its correction we should aim to introduce into the intestine more solid food, which, by the irritation it causes, brings about increased activity of the bowels. Whole wheat bread is a very desirable addition to the diet and may be used freely. If a fruit-juice (orange or prune) is taken before breakfast, it will act beneficially. Prunes may be stewed, or apples served in a like manner, and may be given to very young children. Occasionally it will be found that these measures do not afford the necessary relief, and if a small handful of senna-leaves are placed in a bag and allowed to remain in the vessel in which the prunes are stewed, it will add materially to the effect.

In older children, one or two figs may be eaten before breakfast, and vegetables may be taken in abundance, either cooked (as peas, string beans, asparagus, or spinach) or uncooked (as tomatoes or celery). Water should be taken rather freely, because in many instances the consequences of a scant supply of water is a dry and hard stool.

I have found that girls are apt purposely to avoid the free drinking of water, because they do not wish to have to empty the bladder several times during the day. A large cup of hot water before breakfast, or a large cup of cold water taken just before retiring, or the use of both for a time, will do much to bring relief to this condition.

In many children, milk is constipating, because of the manner in which it is taken. As an article of food, milk should not be taken as liquids are, but must be taken very slowly and along with other food. With the milk, the child may be given some crackers or bread. If used in this manner, milk is rarely constipating. The use of milk that has been subjected to a high temperature, or to boiling, may be the cause of constipation in a child. The free use of molasses is beneficial in many instances.

Influence of Exercise

Exercise has much to do with the activity of the bowel, and lack of it or restriction in its practise may cause constipation. This is why massage is often so beneficial; it exercises the abdominal muscles. But irrespective of massage, exercise which brings into play the muscles of the abdomen may be indulged in.

In the formation of the habit of regularity, it may be permissible to use a suppository occasionally until the habit is formed. At the time selected for having the bowels evacuated, should there be no result, the suppository may be inserted, and will aid in the accomplishment of the act. Glycerine suppositories are the best for this purpose, because they are more irritating to the rectum and are quickly expelled.

VII

THE TEETH

THE first of the permanent teeth to appear are the four first molars, or as they are more commonly called, "the six-year molars," because of the usual time of their eruption. They do not replace any of the temporary teeth, because the jaw has developed sufficiently to allow their appearance back of, and next to, the second molars. After the appearance of these four, the order in which the other permanent teeth are erupted is almost identical with the eruption of the temporary teeth. The four incisors appear between the seventh and eighth years, the four bicuspid between nine and ten, the four canines about the eleventh year and the four second molars between twelve and fourteen years.

This practically completes the appearance of the teeth (28) in childhood, because the remaining four teeth are not erupted until much later. These latter are the four third

molars (wisdom teeth), which make their appearance between the seventeenth and twenty-fifth years.

Care of the Teeth

The eruption of the first, or temporary, teeth is very commonly attended with some slight disturbance, and after their appearance they are usually neglected because they are temporary. But they are important and should receive care similar to that bestowed on the permanent teeth. The habit of cleanliness should be early inculcated in the child, and in regard to the teeth this care must apply to both sets. The care of the teeth should be started with the temporary set and carried on throughout the life of the individual. The hygiene of the mouth alone demands that this care be given.

Individual Brushes

Each member of the household should be provided with his own tooth-brush, so marked that it can be readily distinguished. It is possible now to secure such brushes marked with different colored handles. It is best to clean the teeth directly after every meal. If this is done, it will require little time, because all that will be necessary is to remove all particles of food which may have become lodged in the mouth or between the teeth. In this way the mouth is kept

clean and the membranes in a healthy state, insuring firm gums to protect the teeth.

Frequency of Cleansing

If the cleansing is done only once daily, there are several particles of food which will be allowed to remain in the mouth for several hours. The heat of the cavity favors decomposition and fermentation, which will, in time, cause decay and soreness. And when not done frequently the brushing must be more severe, and that may result in injury to the gums.

Systematic Inspection

Whenever possible, it is advisable to have the child's teeth inspected and cared for by a competent dentist at regular intervals (about twice during the year), so that any initial decay or other trouble may receive the most prompt attention.

It is neither safe nor wise to wait until the destruction is such as to cause an amount of discomfort which will compel attention. Children are careless in this matter, and will fear to complain, because they have a horror of going to the dentist. This comes largely through the fact that they are often taken there when the trouble with the teeth has been of long standing, and any manipulation, no matter how gentle, is painful.

Neglect in this matter will lead to early

decay of the teeth, and as they are so prominently concerned in the preparation of the food for the stomach, by the process of mastication, every care should be given to preserve their integrity.

VIII

WEIGHT AND HEIGHT

IN very young children—that is, those between the ages of three and five years—the weight during the summer months remains stationary, or the gain is very slight. It is in the early fall that these children show their largest gains. During this period girls gain in about the same proportion as boys.

The smallest gains in weight are generally made between the fifth and seventh years, and during this period there is rarely a gain of over four pounds a year in a child who is developing normally. Of course, if a child has been of underweight from any cause, a greater gain than this may be expected until nearly the normal has been reached. Then, for the four years which follow—that is, between the seventh and eleventh years—there is an average gain of about six pounds yearly.

Differences Between Boys and Girls

The most marked differences between boys and girls come during the next few years, and the averages are as follows: During the twelfth year, the boys gain seven

pounds and the girls eleven. This difference is not so marked the next year, when the boys average nine pounds to the girls ten. During the fourteenth year, boys gain more than girls, the respective averages being eleven and nine pounds. During the fifteenth year, boys gain eleven pounds to the girls eight. These differences need to be borne in mind when making a comparison between the sexes. The following table will give, approximately, what children should weigh, and also what the average heights are for different ages.

Table of Average Weights and Heights

AGE	POUNDS		HEIGHT	
Years	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
5	41	39	3 ft. 5	3 ft. 4
6	45	43	3 ft. 8	3 ft. 7
7	49	48	3 ft. 10	3 ft. 9
8	54	52	4 ft. 0	4 ft. 0
9	60	57	4 ft. 2	4 ft. 1
10	66	64	4 ft. 4	4 ft. 3
11	72	70	4 ft. 6	4 ft. 5
12	79	81	4 ft. 8	4 ft. 9
13	88	91	4 ft. 10	4 ft. 10
14	99	100	5 ft. 1	5 ft. 0
15	110	108	5 ft. 3	5 ft. 1

Average Weight of Clothing

In computing the weights of children, some allowance must be made for differences in clothing, but I have found the following to be the average. At five years, the clothing weighs about four pounds; at six years, three and three-quarters pounds; at seven, three and one-half; at eight, four pounds; at nine, five; at ten, five and one-half; at eleven, six; at twelve, six; at thirteen, seven; at fourteen, eight and one-half, and at fifteen years, nine pounds. For summer clothing, from one to two pounds must be deducted from these averages, which are for winter clothes.

Of course, it must be remembered that all these figures are averages; that they are the results of an examination of a limited number of children, and in one locality. If we could have access to a large number of such figures from many sources, this would add to the value. But, even if we had such, there would have to be a liberal allowance made for individual peculiarities, for some children, irrespective of their parentage, remain short in stature, while others grow tall. The environment of the child and the care that it receives, its nourishment and its work, are all important factors.

But we must have some average to guide us, and if too much emphasis is not placed upon the figures as set down in the foregoing table, we shall have something to base a comparison upon. There are some children who become excessively fat, and it will usually be found that they are large eaters and inactive in their habits. In such cases, all fatty foods should be restricted, or excluded from the diet, and this would apply particularly to butter and milk. Skimmed milk could be used in moderation; that is, not over one pint daily. Sugars should also be excluded. Exercise must be encouraged, and, if needs be, insisted upon, and when once undertaken there must be regularity and persistence in it.

Fat Children

Most cases will yield in time to these measures, which are so simple that there is danger that they will not be carried out long enough. The giving of drugs to reduce obesity is dangerous, unless given with the permission and advice of a physician.

IX

EDUCATION AT HOME AND IN THE KINDERGARTEN

IT is almost impossible to give a clear-cut definition to "education." It means so many different things of which we have alone the evidence, that the more completely the parent realizes that "book-learning" is not all of education, the better for the child. Familiarity in use of the word has stood in the way of a full appreciation of its scope and limitations. It must, however, be admitted that much of book-learning has no real bearing upon education; that there is a great deal of true education which the child must acquire from other sources than books. The education of a child begins at its birth, or at the time when there is personal relationship between parent and child. This leads us to consider the place of birth of a child's education—the home.

The Home

The words of the familiar song, "There is no place like home," apply with special force to the education of a child, for there is no place where training is more efficient

in results, or more lasting in influence, than the home. In point of time alone, the child is under the influence of home more than he is of any school (except the boarding-school), and those influences abide for the whole of life. The foundations of human life, for both time and eternity, are laid in the home.

Home Influence Upon Schooling

When the elements of a true home life exist, the home will influence the schooling through all the years. No matter what school the child may attend, the home will easily hold first place in point of influence and guidance. It is impossible to conceive of any institution of learning which will so effectively influence the character, the intellect or the conduct of the child as the home. The child may learn much in school, but the nature of the home gives the peculiar meaning to all things. Even the words which the child is taught may often have no real significance until the associations of home bring the meaning to the fore.

The child for a long time will love that which mother loves; believe that which father believes; and think that whatever either does is right. The opinions, teaching, example and cooperation of parents are

paramount to the child, and, in spite of all that the school may do and teach, these remain uppermost in the mind of the child for years.

The Kindergarten

With the advance of ideas and education and the restlessness which is a prominent feature of the life of to-day, children are sent to schools at an earlier period than formerly. This has resulted in the rapid growth and spread of the kindergarten.

This tendency to push the education of the child is a serious mistake and works harm. This is not always the fault of the parent alone; it is apt to be encouraged by unthinking teachers who are overanxious to have children take up school work at an early age. Every parent would be wise to consider this matter very carefully before finally reaching a decision.

Disadvantages of Kindergarten

Frequently, children are sent to the kindergarten simply to be amused, or to give to the mother the rest which she imagines she needs. A strange teacher is thus permitted to relieve parents of the bother of training and educating the child in its tender years. Is it right or wise unthinkingly to turn a child over to the care of another? The importance of the matter is so great that

the decision to do so must come after much deliberation. The instruction at the kindergarten often forms a small part of the exercises, and what there is of it is sometimes of doubtful value.

Advantages of Kindergarten

But we must say this for the kindergarten, if its work is so planned that it will encourage the child in the proper control of its emotions, will inculcate the habits of right conduct and guide the imagination, it will have more than justified its existence. The kindergarten is a tremendous boon to poor children, those who are compelled to live amid surroundings which are not conducive to good living. Under its influence the child is taught the value and practise of honesty, of fair play and of courtesy. He meets with gentlewomen who have been trained to bring out the best that is in him.

It would be well if cities would see to it that the poorer sections are adequately supplied with such institutions and with such teachers. But when the child goes to a kindergarten, there he is met with the same element of dangers to health as when he attends any other school, and as these are fully considered in the following pages, they need not be mentioned here.

The best teacher for the child is its parent and, while much of the instruction must of necessity be given over to others specially trained for the work, the wise parent will never relinquish the right and opportunity which he or she has in the education of the child.

X

EDUCATION AT SCHOOL

The Four Periods

ONE'S life might be said to be divided into four periods, analogous to mathematics—addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The addition time of life is early childhood, the time for great acquisitions. During its continuance the individual is capable of acquiring a large amount of impressions, but he is not capable of making a selection. One of the child's weakest points lies in this early selective faculty. There is no more reason why he should know what is best for his mental development than that he should know what is proper for his food.

Addition is followed by subtraction. The subtraction time of life is the time when the child becomes self-conscious, begins to make his choice and deliberately eliminates from its life materials which are felt, at first instinctively and then rationally, to be unpleasant or unnecessary. It is during this period that the most of us discover our function in life. These two periods are prepar-

atory for the third—the multiplication time.

In this period, the individual, equipped by the processes of addition and subtraction, goes out to fulfil his function; to multiply his knowledge; to give of what he has received; to make his presence felt in the world; in a word, to reproduce himself; to multiply his personality. And inevitably to each one comes the dividing time of life, when the sum of the physical and mental powers that were active wane, and the energy that once was is divided.

Acquisition and Selection

We are interested here only in the first and second periods, the periods of addition and subtraction, for it is these periods which embrace the life with which the school has to do. I have intimated that the addition period, the time of very early childhood, is characterized by a large capacity for acquisition and an incapacity for selection; and that the subtraction period, the period of later childhood and youth is characterized no less by acquisition, but also by an increasing capacity for selection.

Duty of Parent and Teacher

It follows, therefore, that the duty of the parent or teacher is, first, to make for the child a proper environment; and, second, to assist the child in his all-important power of

selection. To his capacity for acquisition there should be brought the things worth while. To his power of choice there should be brought the illumination of a wise experience.

Health and Education

In the doing of these things, the parent must take counsel with the child's individual fitness; in a word, with the child's health. For health is to education what foundation is to superstructure, and a building's use is proportioned to the strength of that building's foundation. From the physician's point of view, the attempt to separate health and education will result in certain failure; the preponderance of either will invite disaster. They are interdependent. And without inward training and control, outward health is an absolute menace. Ungoverned physical strength and passion are brutal, even tho the body of them be human. And of what service is a well-developed mind, with all its powers aroused, unless beneath it all there is that condition of body which will allow its unhindered activity.

What is Health?

What is health? It is quite necessary that we have a clear idea of what health stands for. To physiologists, it is a term of precision indicating an actual state of the living

body. To them it suggests a picture. Familiar as they are with the various tissues of the body and their delicate adjustment to one another, they can bring into their minds' eye an image of the normal life which constitutes health.

The living child, when closely examined from a physiological standpoint, reveals itself as a complicated mechanism like a watch. When a watch is working well, each part of the mechanism complementing the others, we say that it is a good timepiece. If the mechanism of the child's body is working well, each organ of the body acting in perfect accord with the others, we speak of that action as normal, or as in a state of health.

Physiologic Health

A state of health demands that there be coordination and cooperation of parts; that the intricate yet correlated functions of each organ be carried on freely and without pain. To illustrate: A child in perfect health becomes effected with an accumulation of the normal secretion of the ear, which, through neglect, has not been removed. The result of such an accumulation is partial deafness. Immediately the child is deprived of one avenue of education.

Strain, in an attempt to hear more clearly, results in certain reflex disturbances in distant parts of the body. The child appears dull and stupid, and being accused of that fault, begins to believe it is stupid. Discouragement on that account brings into play other undesirable emotions. The sensitive and undeveloped nervous system is damaged and the child becomes ill.

Where was the fault? It is in the failure of one organ to act in harmony with the rest of the body. We must take the physiologist's view. We must think of the body, not simply as a piece of machinery, made up of parts or organs delicately assembled and coordained, but as a mechanism which is not made, but grows. This living mechanism runs down and stops at death; and while in theory death occurs only when there is a wearing out of all the parts, in reality the mechanism does not wear out, but some one organ breaks down, gives out before its time, and by its own failure involves the whole mechanism. Some of this premature breakdown results from inherited weakness; some congenital flaw in the material, but the larger part is the result of a maladjustment to environment. It is im-

portant to remember that the constitution of the adult is dependent almost entirely on the care that the body received during the period of childhood.

Modern Schools

Now, how is modern school-life related to the health of children? As early as the twelfth century, it is recorded that physicians used to visit places of assembly designated for those who were to receive instruction. And altho the service rendered by these physicians at that time was of doubtful value, it still suggests to us that, even at that early day, there was a recognition of the intimate relation between education and health.

School Inspection

But it was not until recent times that a well-organized plan of medical supervision of schools was adopted. In 1833, France had laws passed which required certain cities to inaugurate a system of medical inspection of schools. And since then the idea has gained ground, so that, in place of medical inspection, many cities have adopted the plan of medical supervision. Medical inspection of schools only partly solves the problem of the best interests of the child. It, in a certain degree, protects the child, and particularly from the dangers of infec-

tion; but it is necessarily limited in its scope; it can suggest but it can not remedy.

School Supervision

Medical supervision has advantages of inspection with the added value of unlimited action; it brings about unity of action between the educator and the physician. It suggests the means by which the child can be kept in that state of physical vigor which is commensurate with the possibilities of proper education. And so the idea has steadily grown and, without accumulating instances, we might cite Japan, where the idea of medical supervision of schools was first adopted in 1893, and where to-day she has nearly 9,000 physicians who cooperate with the Department of Education in the training of her future citizens.

Moral Obligation of the State

Since education is necessary, and attendance upon school is almost uniformly compulsory in this country, it is a moral obligation which the State must assume to protect the child from the greatly increased risk of contraction of diseases to which, by the modern school conditions, he is exposed. And this moral obligation does not end when the risks of school-life are minimized. Safeguarding the child while he is in actual attendance upon school, is only a small part.

The conditions which prevail in the home of the child should also be learned. In fact, in the matter of contagion, the greatest source of danger to the health of the school attendant is, not from the companion or associate who is acutely ill with disease and can not hide it, but from the mildest cases of contagious diseases, and from those who, while remaining in a state of health themselves, carry disease to others. And in this matter every parent should feel it a clear duty to cooperate.

Moral Obligation of Parents

There is a tendency to disregard the rights of other children, and because the city or the State is so stringent in its laws to safeguard the health of the school-child, many parents become negligent in the matter and are willing to overlook their own duty.

There is an obligation to protect the child further; every source of danger to health, no matter what its origin, must, so far as possible, be eliminated. If the State does less than this at the same time that it compels the child to attend school, it falls far short of its duties. It is not sufficient to have compulsory schooling; there must also be proper schooling. And if parents do not

Cooperation Between State and Parents

see to it that, in the home every possible assistance is given in the carrying out of these measures by the State, they fall short of their duty to their children and their obligation to the rights of others. There are several things which accompany modern school methods and affect the health of the child.

School Methods that Affect Health

First, there is the very close association with a company which is not of the child's choosing.

Second, there is an abridgment of the child's liberty for several hours each day.

Third, there is an adjustment of the child's life to strange conditions, both physical and mental, especially an adjustment of special organs to conditions which were previously unknown.

The Risks of Contagion

Now, it is a well-recognized fact that when school-life begins, the child is exposed to greater risk from contagion. Close association with other children for several hours each day, and for several days each week, gives increased opportunity for contracting a contagious disease. How frequently we have heard the remark made: "My child was always in good health until we sent him to school," and then follows a

history of illness with one or more contagious disease.

We take this point for granted when, in times of known infection, schools are closed to prevent a spread. Infectious diseases are not uncommon during the period preceding the beginning of school-life, for the younger the child the more susceptible it is to external influences. But the period of school-life claims further victims, and particularly those children who have not been infected before. The plain duty is to exclude from school such children as show evidences of ill health, which might possibly be the first sign of an infectious or contagious disease. And it must be remembered that the possibility of transmission rests, not alone with the child who may be infected, for disease may be carried through third persons.

Precautions Against Infection

Owing to the severity of many infectious diseases and their consequent effect upon the life of the child, and their well-known severity with young children, every possible precaution must be taken to delay as long as possible their occurrence.

A great deal of care must be taken with scarlet fever. This disease is commonly carried through the peeling of the skin, which

so often takes place several weeks after all active signs of the disease have disappeared, so that the mere act of hand-shaking is sufficient for transmission. We know that, after local conditions in the throat have cleared up, for a long period diphtheria bacilli are still present in the mouth; through their agency the disease may be transmitted to another child.

The same is true of whooping-cough, which is readily transmitted by discharges from the nose and mouth, and is contagious for a long time. And so we might go on and recite instance after instance, and disease after disease.

The Influences of Restraint

The child by nature is a playful animal rebelling against constraint, and if he be restrained too much, his health is bound to suffer. Restraint is not merely a question of minutes or hours; it must adapt itself to the individuality of the child. A new life begins for the child the first day it is entered at school. The open-air life to which it has been accustomed must now give way to housing for several hours a day. Unrestrained play must, in like manner, be represt, and opposed to the previously unrestricted liberty are the necessary method,

routine and discipline of school-life. It is necessary that everything possible be done to reduce to a minimum the injurious effects which these new conditions in the child's life are liable to bring about.

School Sickness

The harmful effects of school-life will show sooner or later in those children who are unprepared for daily attendance upon school; nervous, anemic and under-nourished children, these are the first to suffer. So common is this that a general term of "school-sickness" has been coined to designate it. Its manifestations are varied, but the more common is that the child becomes languid, irritable, peevish or hysterical, and may suffer from headache, loss of appetite, impoverishment of the blood and sleeplessness.

Prevention of Harmful Influences

Prevention, altho not always possible, is better than cure, and much can be done along the line of preventive measures. The class-rooms should be as large and airy as it is possible to have them, and the number of pupils should be restricted within limits which are conducive to the perfect performance of the function of respiration. The modern school-building is well constructed, and particular attention has been

paid to the subject of ventilation. As time goes on, the laity are realizing more and more, what physicians have been teaching for years, that the child needs good fresh air, just as much as it needs good, fresh food, and requires it with just as much regularity. Oxygen, which is obtained in such abundance in good, clean, fresh air, and is so grudgingly supplied by a stale atmosphere, is absolutely essential to the proper development of the child and its continuance in mental exertion.

The Parent's Duty

But what shall we say of the parent whose child is amply provided for by the State in this regard, and yet who refuses to have removed from the child's throat or nose a mass of harmful tissue, which by its presence prevents the proper inhalation of the air provided? Let me illustrate:

Adenoids and Education

A child is sent to school, in which hygienic conditions are as nearly perfect as it is possible to make them, and a school in which this child's teacher is one who has some understanding of the laws of hygiene. There is every condition about the school and its management to insure for that child a successful performance of the function of respiration, but partially blocking the passage

between the child's nose and throat is a mass of tissue which is called adenoids, and frequently associated with this there is an enlargement of one or both tonsils. Such a condition makes breathing more or less difficult for the child, and as the demand for air is insistent, the child takes it in through the mouth, instead of through the nose, and this results in a characteristic facial expression in this child. The mouth is kept partly open, the eyes are dull and heavy, giving an expression of stupidity. As the taking of a full and free inspiration is impossible, the chest remains undeveloped. As less air goes to the lungs, so less oxygen goes into the blood, and so the nutrition of definite parts and organs, which are dependent upon a good blood supply, suffers. In nearly two-thirds of cases deafness is present, and this is entirely dependent on the presence of adenoids. This deafness brings about a condition of mental torpidity, so that frequently the child is blamed for mental incapacity alone, when in reality there is a removable physical basis for its condition. The child is unable to concentrate his attention and becomes indifferent. Such a child can not be properly educated until conditions are made suitable

for mental effort. It is not only on the basis of the health of the child that there is need for a correction of this deformity, but the best interests of education demand it.

School Desks

The strongest criticism of the modern school-building is related to its furnishings, and particularly to the desks which are provided, and the criticism is usually justified. The child must early be taught to sit in a correct position, and if such teaching is to be efficient, proper provision must be made in the way of furniture. A faulty position assumed at the desk should be corrected at once, because, through a lack of attention to this detail at this time, curvature of the spine may result. The desks should be suited to the size of the child, and the child should not be expected to fit a desk of any size that may be provided. It should be so constructed that the child can sit at it in a comfortable, upright position, and without cramp or fatigue. The height of the chair should equal the length of the child's leg, allowing the sole of the foot to rest squarely upon the floor. When thus seated, the top of the desk should be on a level with the child's elbow. The back of the desk must be slightly higher than the front, so as to

Proper Desks

allow of a suitable slant for the assumption of a proper position in writing.

It is unfortunate that desks adopted and in use in some parts of Sweden, and lately introduced into Great Britain, are not used more generally. They are so constructed that they may be adjusted to a proper height for each child. In addition to this, they may be turned over by means of a hinge-joint in the flooring, so that, in cleaning the room, every part of the desk and the flooring beneath it becomes accessible and exposed to view. Absolute cleanliness of the school-room is of such prime importance in preventing the spread of disease, that this matter of proper cleaning should be given considerable attention.

Dangers of Dirt and Dust

It has been the experience of the race that dirt is one of the most effective carriers of disease. Late research has shown that dust is, as a rule, rich in bacteria. In the open, the unfavorable conditions to which micro-organisms in dust are exposed—namely, desiccation, unfavorable degrees of temperature, light and air—undoubtedly destroy some and weaken others, but this protection is not offered by the school-room. Dust must always be considered dangerous by

sanitarians, not alone as a vehicle carrying infection, but as an irritant to the mucous membrane. In just a few words, to be clean is, in a measure, to be free from the dangers of infectious disease.

Value of Beautiful Buildings

Before we leave the subject of the school-building, let me say something about its architecture as well as its utility. The magnificent and beautiful modern school-buildings were not in the dream of Whittier when he penned his description of the little deserted country-school. The more modern are beautiful. With the child's mind open to impressions, what possibilities lie in such buildings to awaken in that mind artistic taste. We can not have too many such buildings; the architects of schools are doing their best, and so they help architects of the mind in their work. The justifiable pride which the child takes in a fine building could be made of more use in fostering a feeling of civic pride, a thing much needed in our cities to-day.

Is There Too Much Teaching?

The charge is not infrequently made that children are taught too much; that too many subjects are forced upon them; that, by this process, they receive a smattering of a lot of things, but do not learn any one thing

well. To some extent this may be true, but it is made necessary by the scheme of general education under which we are living. And this is just the opportunity for the parent. You know, or ought to know, the natural talents and tendencies of your child, and you know them as no other person can. With this knowledge, you are in a position to cooperate with the school instruction and recognize and strengthen your own child's weaker faculties.

Need of Variety

It is not possible to determine just what particular knowledge will be most needed by a particular child in its after life, and so a very large variety of material must be brought to it. And this has its advantages, for most intelligent children demand variety; they delight in change. Because they are pleased by it is no good and sufficient reason why they should receive it; but, on the other hand, they are actually benefited by the introduction of variety into their mental work; their attention is not concentrated too long upon one subject, and, as a result, they do not tire so readily and they learn better. Children dislike specialism and are more apt to cooperate when there is sufficient variety. They may be made auto-

matically to repeat facts for an extended period, but they are incapable of thinking, or reasoning, about such facts for long periods.

Mental Overstrain

The attempt to compel the child to co-operate by concentration of its thought or giving attention for an extended time, will result in brain exhaustion. In a consideration of the effect of mental overstrain, as the result of the pressure of education, we can not disregard the influence exerted by the emotions. The fear of failure to succeed may in one child be the cause of mental exhaustion, and this, quite apart from the amount of mental work which the child has accomplished. In some children (just as truly as in their elders), ambition may lead to the development of exhausting emotions, such as jealousy, unkindly feeling toward a competitor, and kindred emotions. Boys are not so apt to suffer in this regard as girls, because they generally create an outlet for such feelings by the exercise of their pugilistic tendencies after school hours.

Dangers of Overlooking Mental Overstrain

The danger of overlooking the existence of mental overstrain in the child is always present, because the child has some difficulty in describing his mental sensations with ac-

curacy, and, even if he could, he is not as free or willing as the adult to do so. More often he will make a strenuous endeavor to concentrate his lagging attention. With the one exception of headache, the child will usually make no complaint of his symptoms. The adult confides to his friends the dread which he has of the morrow and its duties; he tells of uncontrollable imaginations of error or wrong, of his irritability, which he always attributes to not feeling well, and a hundred and one complaints of which he is, to his view, the undeserving victim.

But the child conceals these things; he is irritable and fretful, but he makes no excuses; he may exhibit fits of passion or wilfulness which are unnatural for him; he is brilliant for very short periods and in certain studies, while he is dull and a laggard in others; he is restless in sleep; and in these particulars he shows without audible complaint that there is something wrong.

Physiological Fatigue Periods

It is the commonly accepted idea of educators and parents alike, that the younger the child the greater the liability to fatigue and the more marked its effect upon the system. But it may come as a matter of surprize to some to learn that this is not

strictly so. Between the ages of seven and nine years there is a very decided deficiency in the physical vigor of children. This deficiency is not confined entirely to the physical state, but is associated with a mental lack of vigor which is physiological. For many years the child during this period of life was considered lazy, and was accused of lack of attention and effort which was supposed to be wilful and deliberate. Now, as a matter of fact, the boy or girl at seven years gives evidences of fatigue more readily than the child at six. And at the age of eight, fatigue is much more easily induced than at either six or seven. At the ninth year, the child possesses a limit of fatigue, which is approximately the same as at the age of seven. From this point on there is a gradual but progressive increase in the capacity for physical and mental work until the next period of fatigue, which occurs in girls about the thirteenth year, and in boys the fourteenth.

Second Fatigue Period in Girls

The second fatigue period lasts for several months, and during its continuance the girl is not capable of concentration of attention upon one subject for an extended time without injury. As nearly as can be determined,

the limit of time spent upon one subject without evidence of fatigue is twenty minutes.

Second Fatigue Period in Boys

A year later in boys, or at the average age of fourteen, the most rapid body growth has begun, and the brain ceases to increase in weight, and, in fact, shows a decrease temporarily, while the several organs of the body are undergoing a physical revolution.

During this period, twenty minutes is the maximum limit of successful concentration upon one subject. Between the ages of fourteen in girls and fifteen in boys, and until the eighteenth year in each, there is a gradual increase in physical and mental vigor, so that concentration may safely be prolonged to thirty minutes.

Limits to Concentration of the Mind

This leads me to consider briefly, altho its importance might warrant a more extended discussion, the average length of time during which the normal child is capable of mental concentration without injury to its health. Such a consideration of the averages would not detract from the necessity of individualizing each case when circumstances demand it.

Between the ages of five and seven, it is usually possible for the child successfully to

concentrate its attention upon one subject for fifteen minutes. At first there may be some rebellion against doing so, but this is not brought about by incapacity, but by lack of desire.

At the age of eight years, the limit of concentration is reduced to twelve minutes. At nine, it is again possible to increase it to fifteen minutes. During the following year there is a rather rapid increase in capacity, so that by the tenth year, twenty minutes is a safe limit.

Between ten and thirteen, twenty-five minutes is the average. When the average girl reaches the age of thirteen, the most rapid growth of her body ceases and she has also, at that time, reached her maximum brain weight, and the second fatigue period is present.

Results of Disregard for Limits of Concentration

Now, with this in mind, what is the result of over-application; of a disregard for these physiological fatigue periods in the life of the child? Every minute spent in concentration after the child is incapable of properly cooperating is worse than wasted. From an educational standpoint, any further attempt to instruct can not be adapted to the child's state of mind; he can not cooperate; such

attempts at teaching lose definiteness and repetition is worse than useless. And so most, if not all, the laws of teaching are violated in regard to that particular child. And from the standpoint of the health of the individual, an attempt of this character is harmful.

Conditions Favoring Fatigue

While it is true that over-application must be detrimental to the health of any child, there are many conditions in the child's life which greatly reduce its capacity for mental concentration and which render the child much more susceptible to fatigue. Without enumerating all of these, it is only necessary to make this broad statement; that, whatever retards, reduces or interferes with the child's normal development, in turn interferes with and reduces its capacity for attention.

Importance of Nutrition

But there is one element so common that to pass it over would be an error; this element is nutrition. The period of childhood places a demand upon the body which is proportionately greater than at any other time of life. The child is subjected to more excitement, more work and more physical and mental strain, than in later life. The developing organism and the activities of the

child's life require that nutrition be the best. In the adult, food is largely a matter of making up for waste, but in the child there are two important factors; the repair of waste and supplying material for unimpaired growth.

Nutrition is of prime importance. I can hardly emphasize too much the high place which it occupies in the education of the child. Neither do I hesitate to make what may at first seem like a sweeping statement —that there is nothing that affects the education and health of the child in a larger degree.

Importance of Diet

The diet of the child must be as nutritious and varied as possible, and regularity should be the key-note of all that has to do with the taking of food. The requirements of education upon the body demand that the child have an abundance of fruits and vegetables, carbohydrates and fats. It is particularly during the earlier years of school-life that the nutrition is apt to suffer. The child is then under a new kind of excitement; there is the worry over lessons, the desire to hurry off to school, and meals become to the child a secondary consideration. And too often to the child is left the selection of its diet.

Nutrition is More Than Partaking of Food

The diet should be proportionate to demands made upon the child, but nutrition does not end with partaking of food; it takes within its scope the assimilation of food, the distribution of bodily heat, the avoidance of fatigue, the regulation of rest and the kind and amount of recreation. And unless the parent who holds the power of control of these matters will exercise that power, the teacher of the child will be seriously handicapped in the work of instruction. And further than this, if such a child is given the mental training which the parent will probably demand, in circumstances of poor nutrition, the child will be certain to suffer, and an impairment of health will result.

The Demand Upon Special Organs

There are special demands that the necessities of modern school-life make upon certain organs of the body. For example, the eye and ear must accustom themselves to new conditions, and the close application of either organ may put upon it a strain for which it is not ready, and if this is done, damage will result. The organ not being able to do its part, becomes the cause of reflex disturbances in remote parts of the body and the health of the child suffers.

There was at one time a common saying in

Need of Proper Amount of Sleep

regard to sleep, that a man required six hours, a woman seven, and a fool eight; and I am suspicious that the one who made this statement slept eight hours and was of the male persuasion. We must admit that there are individual characteristics and peculiarities in regard to the amount of sleep needed, even in the healthy. These can not very well be disregarded. But from a study of the needs of a large number of school-children in the city, it is evident that, between the ages of six and thirteen, from eight to ten hours should be spent in sleep. It is a well-recognized fact that true insomnia (that is, insomnia for which there is apparently no cause at all) is very rare in children. But sleeplessness, which can be readily ascribed to a very definite cause, is common. Irregularity in habits, partaking of food that is not suitable, insufficient bed-covering, poor ventilation of the bedroom, and conditions of like character, will be sufficient to cause disturbed rest, or actual sleeplessness, and the habit once formed tends to continuance.

Sleeplessness

Modern education imposes upon children who are industrious but slow an increasing mental strain, and such children require much time for sleep. But the matter of

sleep can be overdone as well as underdone. "Early to bed" is always a good principle, and applies to all children. "Early to rise" is also a good principle for most children, but not for all. The child who is drowsy and languid in the morning, who begins his day lacking freshness and spirit, should be allowed to sleep longer in the morning, until it has been determined what the definite cause may be. And irrespective of the baneful effect of loss of sleep upon the health of the child, a pupil suffering from such loss can not be sent to its instructor except with the assurance that its best mental work can not be accomplished.

Necessity of Correct Impressions

To get the benefits of education a child must receive correct impressions, and if there exists a lack in vision he can not do his best work until that is corrected. It frequently happens that faulty vision is not detected until the child attends school, for at home there has been no close application of vision, or a slight error has gone unnoticed. But school-life puts the organ to the test, and it may then for the first time be found defective. Just here comes in the opportunity of the interested and observing parent. By watching the child under varying conditions,

Defective Vision

it is easy to detect that more strain is being placed upon the organ than it can comfortably accommodate. It is not uncommon to find a child, who for a short time and under favorable conditions has had what is apparently normal vision, but who, when placed before the test-card, will not show the fault is vision. And yet, when put to close work, such a child will indicate in no uncertain manner that the eye is being overstrained.

Ocular Overstrain

Now, the reflex symptoms which will accompany ocular strain will differ with the temperament of the particular child, but it is not necessary to go into details in regard to these, as they are only symptoms. The mental status of a child with defective vision is below that of his companion of equal ability and with normal vision. And if, in addition, he shows signs of a reflex disturbance, he is sure to exhibit a mental condition which is subnormal.

Necessity of Restriction

Until the defects of vision and hearing are corrected, the child should be restricted in its work, or be excluded from attendance upon school. This is necessary, not only to prevent further damage being done to the child's health, but for the reason that, if

several such children are associated in a class, they will detract from the possible progress which children with normal vision and hearing could make. A child so affected is essentially backward; he views things in a wrong light; he tires easily and can not give proper attention. All this leads to discouragement, and a discouraged child is not for the time amenable to instruction.

These matters are important, because it is not alone the present welfare of the child that is concerned, but its whole future. Moral obliquity is frequently due to physical deformity; physical abnormality is commonly the secret of mental under-development. No matter what may be your own ideas in regard to the school which your boy or girl is attending, or what you may think of its courses of study, or of its corps of instructors, never express your views before the child, unless they are favorable to the school, the curriculum and the teachers.

The Value of Enthusiasm

Children are very apt to be pessimistic about these things, and need no incentive to make that pessimism deeper. Speak well of things, if you speak at all, and by your own personal interest arouse the child's enthusiasm. If a child becomes deeply interested

in a subject, it will largely educate itself along that line. And if the child become interested in the personality of the teacher, it will result in better and more efficient work.

Breaking Down in School

But if the child "breaks down" under the stress of school life, who is at fault? It is an easy matter to lay the blame at the door of public educators, but is it just? They are the servants of the public and are anxious to do those things which are best for all concerned. If there be a constant demand for any particular line of action, they must recognize it and accede to it. A "break down" in the child comes, not from the work that is done while in school, but from the study that is done at home. Some parents are astonished at the amount of work that is expected to be done at home, and while criticizing a system that will demand so much, they watch the child go on with the work and droop under its exactions. Now, the parent must realize that schools are public institutions and their character and the course of study will be determined by the attitude which the public takes toward them. No child should be expected to fit itself into a system, but the system must be regulated to the needs of the child.

Dealing With Threatened "Break-downs"

If you are assured that home work is destructive to the health of your child, it should be prohibited. The proper manner to approach this is, not through the child, but through the principal or head of the school which the child attends. Action must not be taken until the matter has been fairly and squarely thought out. Then it must be determined just what constitutes study and what overstudy in your child. The case should be plainly but emphatically stated at the school, and the stand taken that only a certain amount of home work, or none at all, will be allowed. There may be objection to this at the school, but in nearly every instance there will be cooperation in the matter. It must be realized that the child's health is of greater importance than its rapid education.

There is strength in numbers, and if a parent with an overworked child will consider the matter impartially, with one or more other parents in similar circumstances, and all act in unison, results will be immediate.

Precocity

There are frequent instances where a child is remarkably precocious, and as there are many degrees of precocity, we find many

very young children in advance of their playmates intellectually. This lead may be limited to one particular line, or it may involve several. There is a popular notion that, if a child shows such a tendency, it is unnatural, and, therefore, is likely to result in early death. There is nothing to warrant us in coming to such a conclusion, for such children live just as long and as happily as any others. The possession of such a talent is not injurious to a child, and usually does not lead to overstrain, unless the parents in their pride force the child. Then, with the forcing comes mental overstrain, which may result in ill health, but no more so than it would in another child.

Long-lived, Tho Precocious

There are many, many instances of men who have belonged to this type of "precocious" children, and who have lived long. Kant lived until he was 80 and enjoyed splendid health. Locke reached 72, altho he was never very robust. Berkeley died very suddenly from heart disease, but he was 69. Lord Bacon lived to see 65 birthday anniversaries. Lord Macaulay lived until he was close to 60, altho he was able at three years of age to read incessantly, and at seven began to write a very comprehensive history.

Descartes was a well-known and much-sought-after philosopher at the tender age of 8, but lived until he was 53, and then it was consumption that took him off. William Cullen Bryant, a delicate, mentally precocious child, died at 84.

And so we might go on through a long list of men who in childhood showed more or less remarkable intellectual precocity, and still lived to greatly benefit mankind and enjoyed health for many years.

XI

RELATIONS OF THE PARENT TO THE CHILD

THE real test of the capabilities of a parent is not what the child of that parent may know, or what he may be able to do, but what he really is. In other words, the main duty and privilege of a parent is to mold the character of the child.

To be at all successful along this line, the parent must know the individual with whom he is dealing; the parent must know the child. It is not enough to know how to apply the principles of child government or to secure the child's cooperation in all things, or even to know just what knowledge should be brought to the child; you must know your boy or girl.

Individuality of Children

Even in the same family no two children are alike. Every individual life is different from another, because the laws of heredity are so complex; because of these differences there are specific requirements for each individual. But if parents will make a careful

examination of their own peculiarities, and apply the knowledge thus gained, they will understand the dominant traits of their children better.

I am going to assume that parents are so much interested in the welfare of the child that all possible light will be secured upon the subject as to how the child should be nurtured and controlled. My purpose in this particular chapter will be to teach the parent how to apply his knowledge to the needs of the child.

What Is a Child?

What is a child? It is very essential that we know this, but a purely logical definition is not required for our purpose. Some practical knowledge on the subject, however, is quite necessary if one is to deal intelligently and successfully with the child. And we must correct one mistake which is very common—the mistake of thinking that the child is only an adult in miniature. If we make a careful comparison of some of the features of the child's and the adult's physical make-up, it will convince us at once that there are very marked differences.

Recognizing these many differences, there are two chief methods by which we may be able to study the child.

Methods of Studying Children

First, we may make a careful analysis of all that he does, and of his outward appearance. This may be done while the child is conscious of being watched, and also while he knows nothing about the observations. Then it is possible so to modify his surroundings that we shall understand the child better. In a word, we may undertake to experiment with the child and study the results. While this is a method which has some few advantages, it is not nearly accurate enough to meet the demands. When we study the child thus, watching him at his play, at his work, and at his rest, we are consciously, or unconsciously, judging his every act, and even analyzing his motives by our own experiences. We assume, for instance, that when he follows a certain line of action he does so from the same sort of motives which would influence us under somewhat similar circumstances. Such an assumption is only true in part.

Introspection

Second, we may use a method of introspection; that is, we may begin by carefully examining ourselves, and from such an examination may judge that similar experiences will be found in the child. There is an ever-present danger in this method, for,

when we look into our own lives and discern our innermost nature, we discern the innermost nature of the adult. It is not right or safe to assume that ours is similar to the innermost nature of the child.

Still, there are so many possibilities in this method that we can not afford to give it up entirely, and, therefore, it becomes necessary to throw safeguards around any possible error. How shall we accomplish this? We were at one time children and had the child's experiences.

Recalling One's Childhood Experiences

As we can not judge of the child from our present experiences, we must rely upon our past ones. We should, by this particular process of introspection, carry ourselves back to childhood days. How did we think and feel and act as children? But, no matter how honest we may be with ourselves, or how earnestly we may take up the matter, there will still remain the fact that the present, in a measure, influences even our memory of the past.

Aids to Memory

Sometimes we honestly think we did and thought certain things in childhood, but thoughtful consideration shows to us they were the products of later years. It is necessary, therefore, to quicken the memory

by every means that is within reach. Old pictures may help us in this matter; the old stories which we used to love to hear will help to recall emotions once aroused by them, provided we read them again. Or we may visit the places that were the playground of our youth. All of these will be valuable aids to memory. And when the matter of renewing the memory of the past is undertaken seriously, it is surprizing how rapidly and clearly apparently forgotten things and incidents will become clear and vivid.

We have practically all experienced this. Perhaps an old and almost forgotten chum comes into our life after a lapse of many years; we talk over old times and the days when we were children. One by one incidents crowd back into vivid recollection and it seems as tho it was only recently that they happened. We know, even at this later day, how we felt at those times; what the motives were that determined our actions; how we loved, hated and strove.

Now, a similar experience may be ours, if we set our minds earnestly and patiently to the task and select a time in which we may have an undisturbed and quiet revery,

and become again the companion of our earlier days. We can live again in memory close to the experiences of our child-life. And thus we may teach ourselves to understand more clearly the child's innermost nature. It is only by placing ourselves as nearly as possible at the child's viewpoint that we may hope to accomplish much with children. That viewpoint may be the wrong one (but, nevertheless, it is the child's), but when we take it we shall then be able to bring the results of riper experiences in adult life to bear in setting things right.

The Child's Viewpoint

This is one great error that parents make in dealings with children; they do not, in a sufficient measure, appreciate what may be passing through the child's mind at a given time. As a matter of common experience, the person who is the most successful guide for a child is the one who most successfully puts himself in the child's place. With some parents this seems to be a natural gift, while in most of us it must come through training and an earnest desire to do the best for the child. No matter how capable and kindly the parent may be, if there is practise in this process of getting the child's point of view, it will make him more capable of

dealing with the child and securing the child's cooperation in all things. This brings us to a consideration of some of the more prominent characteristics of the child, which must be more or less constantly in the minds of those who have children in charge.

Restlessness

Restlessness is a very constant characteristic of childhood, and is sometimes treated as tho it were a fault; but it is a normal and valuable characteristic of early life, for it is Nature's way of preventing one-sided development. It makes the child incapable of long attention or concentration upon one subject, and thereby creates a demand for a variety of subjects. In place of the general complaint against it which is commonly made, an effort should be made to guide this characteristic and not subdue it. There is a type of restlessness, or rather of unease, which may be dependent upon a nervous fault, but this is nothing like the normal, healthful restlessness which we discern in all children.

Curiosity

Curiosity is also a strong characteristic in childhood. It is perfectly natural that the child should want to know things. There is no question that this characteristic becomes somewhat trying to the patience of an adult

at times, but we must remember that the child is seeking knowledge, and that is a healthy sign. Curiosity is a tremendous propelling force in the mental life of any child, and, while the mere asking of questions may become a habit with some, there must be an intelligent response to the child's inquiries if they are to have in them the possibility of instruction.

It may not be wise always to answer questions directly or fully, for the object should be to stimulate the child's thought; to teach him to think for himself. So, under certain conditions, it will be well to answer by asking another question, which will stimulate thought.

Credulity

Credulity is a prominent characteristic with things about which the child knows nothing, and caution is necessary at this point, for when partial knowledge of a subject is obtained by the child, credulity will not be so marked. In its stead a critical attitude may be assumed. Often this may amount to verbal criticism, as "You told me thus and so," and then the child seems to be charging the parent with inconsistency. This is best met by the revelation of a higher law of which the child has been ignorant until

this time. This characteristic adds a decided charm to child-life, and it is through its influence that we are able to bring an abundance of material for mental growth.

Imitation

Imitation is particularly strong in children. By this characteristic, more than any other, they learn readily. We must recognize the importance of this because a child will imitate the wrong as readily as the right. More often than most parents are willing to admit, we see reflected in the child's actions the traits and characteristics of the parent. To the boy, the father is the ideal; to the girl, the mother; and so in matters of dress, speech and carriage, as well as in the larger things, the child imitates the parents, and its associates and character are influenced by such imitation.

Imagination

Imagination is very pronounced and usually uncontrolled. This lack of control is so marked in many instances that clear conception of a truth may be interfered with. This characteristic often shows itself in a marked way in the imaginative stories which are told by children who are not deliberately lying. In a very young child—that is, one under five or six years of age—it is almost impossible to state positively that a child has

lied. We may be certain that the truth has not been stated, but imagination may be so active and so uncontrolled that the child is not deliberately lying. Later in the life of children—that is, about the tenth, eleventh or twelfth year—this same characteristic will be further awakened by a strong dramatic instinct, which seeks expression through "making believe," and stories are often told at that time which have little of the possible in them. There should be early guidance and control of this characteristic, so that it may become useful in later life. It needs no stimulation, but it does require an outlet and sane guidance.

Control of the Imagination

That there is a distinct value in a rightly controlled imagination there can be no doubt. In imagination the artist sees the finished product in a rough stone, the blank canvas or the instrument of music. In like manner the child may see in imagination its finished life outlined in the future. Many have had their imaginations stunted or wrongly guided in early life, and so they have been compelled to live along from day to day with nothing comprehensive in their lives. The imaginings of the child are healthy and normal; let it have its dreams of

what it shall be and what it shall do; but influence him along right channels. Teach him self-control in this as in all things. No one can hope to succeed who goes gayly forth here and there with the thought that "some day I will do something worth while." Imagination forms a large part of enthusiasm, and enthusiasm is a tremendous factor in the accomplishment of results.

Need of Individualizing

While these are far from being all the characteristics common to children, they are the ones with which the parent will be most concerned. But it must be recalled that there are marked individual differences, and the parent is always dealing with an individual. Therefore, there arises the necessity of treating with individual peculiarities. Sometimes it is helpful to place different types of children in large general classes, so that we may get a clearer conception of their needs. But the simpler the division the more valuable it will be.

Influence of Association

All individuals do not fall readily into one class or another, no matter how cautious we may be in placing them, and there are certain precautions which we must consider in making any such division. Then there is the added fact that children act

quite differently in the mass than they do as individuals. There is a determining force in numbers which we are not always able to analyze, but which is so active that we can not fail to recognize it. It controls individual action for the time. In the family life the parent will not have this particular feature of the problem to deal with, on account of the small number of individuals in each family. But, irrespective of this, a child will act differently as an individual with different persons. With his teacher, for instance, the boy is a different acting person than with his father, or mother, and this is so marked in some instances that we might safely say that no individual can be judged as an individual, but only as he acts in relation to others. In a word, it takes the relationship between two persons to give us even a fair clue to the nature or possibilities of either.

And as the combinations of individuals change we may often detect apparent changes in the nature of the same individual. For example, while with one playmate a boy may be a bully and aggressive, the same boy with another companion may be submissive. It is necessary that we, as parents,

study these differences in our boy or girl and make note of the changed attitude with changed relationship.

Now, with these few precautionary remarks, as a preliminary to making a division, we might safely state that there are four large general divisions of children. In normal children they may be divided into two classes—"motor" and "sensory." The nervous child may be divided also into two divisions—the "restrained emotional" and the "unrestrained emotional" types.

"Motor" Children

Motor children have as their chief characteristics a marked tendency to arrive quickly, almost impulsively, at conclusions. With this there is quickness of temper and in learning. But, with this quickness, there is lack of depth, so that the anger which may have been rapidly aroused is soon dispelled, and the things quickly learned are soon forgotten. Such a child lacks persistency; the thing must be accomplished at once, or there is unrest which amounts to rebellion, and the task is given up about as quickly as it was undertaken. These children act largely by impulse, and the action is immediate when a conclusion has been arrived at. Such children are usually at-

tractive to people on account of what is wrongly termed their "brightness."

"Sensory" Children

Sensory children are much slower in all their activities. They do not make up their minds quickly, rather waiting until they can see the thing from a number of standpoints, and even then coming to a decision with hesitancy. This indecision leads them to be annoyed by trifles and may make them inclined to fretfulness. They are less forgiving than motor children, and what they learn is longer retained. Their persistency is very marked, as compared with the motor child; therefore, they get credit for more patience. Such a child is apt to be less favored by parent and associates, and particularly by its teachers, because of its apparent slowness of thought. But this slowness is only apparent and not real, and the possibilities of such a child of doing most excellent work are large. With similar chances for learning and the exercise of patience with such a child, he is more likely to make substantial advances than his more attractive but less stable brother.

XII

GOVERNMENT OF THE CHILD

THERE are certain duties which all parents owe to their offspring. Many of these are so self-evident that the State takes recognition of them in the framing of its laws. Laws are enacted which compel the cooperation of parents in safeguarding the health of the child. For example, it is quite universally insisted upon that a child must be vaccinated before it can attend school, and while in attendance upon school it must observe certain regulations which tend to limit infection and contagion and act as a protection to itself and to others.

Further than this, in the matter of education itself, there are laws which compel the parent to send the child to school until a certain age or state of proficiency has been reached, and regulations are such that there is a definitely prescribed course of study. In all this, the State recognizes that the duty of the parent to the child is intermingled with the duty of the State to its future citizens.

But, however comprehensive the law of the State may become, it can not release the parent of the child from responsibility. The duty of the parent to the child is manifold, but may be summed up as follows:

First, there is the duty to support the child and provide amply for its physical needs until the time arrives when the child is capable of supplying these unaided by the parent.

Second, there is the duty of the parent in guiding the child by the higher reason of the father or mother, until the child's reasoning powers have been sufficiently developed and trained.

Preponderance of Mental and Moral Over Physical Needs

Parents are usually zealous in their provision for the child's physical necessities, and this is as it should be. Judgment is developed much more slowly in the child than is mere physical strength, and therefore the child is less capable of mental and moral self-reliance than of physical self-support. The duty, then, is clear; the time spent in securing for the child the requisite degree of mental and moral development must exceed that spent in his mere physical development and care. This proper and adequate care is a matter of education to parents, and more

than that, it is the highest type of education, for it demands self-devotion, which must be constant in character and of very high type, an attention to detail which is exacting, and a varied application of broad general principles to individual needs.

The Former Attitude Toward the Child

Within the memory of most of us, was the time when the attitude of the parent toward the child was ably exprest in the oft-repeated "children must be seen and not heard." The child was made to feel that he was a necessary evil. By this attitude of the parent he came to regard himself and other children as troublesome; he was excluded from the real social life of the family until he had attained a considerable age, and his personal affairs were always considered unimportant. Not infrequently he was made to feel that his very existence demanded an excuse. The result of this misunderstanding was that, in families which were poor, he was early forced to work beyond his capacity and, when more favored by riches, he was passed over to the care of a more or less disinterested nursemaid.

The Present Attitude Toward the Child

But fortunately, with a better insight into the child-life, this has gradually been changed, so that at the present day the child

is entering more and more into the home life and feels its lasting influences. We realize now that the child normally has hopes, fears, ambitions, misgivings, aspirations and other emotions which are akin to similar emotions in his elders, the only difference being that they are untrained and find a different mode of expression and create more lasting impressions.

The Child's Immaturity a Blessing

It is a distinct advantage that the child's sense of proportion is deficient; that his ignorance of the world leads him to make a more or less literal interpretation of things; that his powers of reasoning and judgment are not early developed. These very lacks place the child's development more completely in the parent's hands; he comes to them dependent and with a character unformed and capable of development. The possibilities are for evil as well as for the good, so that the alternatives most often lie with the parent and not with the child. Therefore, there must be instituted early some form of child-government.

Parental Authority

Parental authority is the basis of all child-government. It may assume quite gentle methods in its administration, but whatever the measures used the authority

must be complete. Gentleness may often be an aid to child-government, but it must never become a substitute for parental authority.

Parental authority must be absolute. There should be settled in the mind of the parent a deep conviction that to command obedience is a duty which the parent owes to himself, to the child, and to society. The more completely acts of obedience in the child rest upon simple submission to the authority of the parent, the easier will child-government be for all concerned.

Early Training Necessary

To be most effective, such training should be instituted very early in the child's career; the earlier that it is established the easier it will be for both parent and child. Many parents do not have any such ideal of obligation to their offspring, and deliberately choose to defer to the child's reasoning. But, as has been stated, the power of reasoning is of somewhat late development, and correct reasoning is always based upon a long period of training and experience.

Therefore, one must be very cautious in making appeals to the reasoning powers of the child, because of this very lack of training and development. There is a time and

a place for appeals to reason, but not as an inducement to obey a command, or when the act of obedience is still pending. The obedience of the child to the authority of the parent must be secured first and completely; after that, it may be advisable in some instances to make an appeal to the child's reasoning powers.

Obedience Comes by Training

It is necessary, also, that the parent fully realize that obedience is a matter of training and development. The young child has no natural instinct of obedience. Like all young animals, the child will exhibit evidences of a semblance to obedience, but this is only due to the natural instincts which the child shares with young animals; instincts of fear of physical harm, of hunger and so forth. But, search as we will, we can find no distinct and definite instinct of simple submission to the will of the parent—that must be developed by training.

Let us take a common illustration, which may make this clearer. Every dog will follow its own master and recognize him among all others. The dog does this through animal instinct. If he should fail to do this, we would rightly suspect at once that there was something wrong with the animal; that

he was not acting as a dog should. Now, no matter how intelligent the dog may be, or how devoted he may be to his master, he will not rush into the water and bring back to the master a thrown stick through the same instinct which makes him follow his owner. The instinct which actuates a dog in following its master for protection and shelter will not make the animal serve the man. To be of service he must be trained.

If an intelligent dog, after long association with his master, is not capable of doing some one or more of the feats which are so common to this class of animals, we blame the master because of his neglect in teaching the animal. The dog, alone and unaided, is incapable of doing these common tricks; he must be taught, and that teaching requires patience and perseverance. In a like manner the child must be taught obedience, for it is not a matter of self-development, but of patient training.

Teaching Obedience

Now, properly and effectually to teach obedience to children, there must be made clear to the child the proposition that it never gains by an act of disobedience; there must be the understanding that it suffers loss, inconvenience or pain by such an act.

I would draw particular attention to the words "never" and "always," for they make more positive and clear the underlying principles.

Danger of Indistinct Commands

And right here let me add a warning: most parents are not sufficiently careful in making regulations and commands so distinct that there is no chance for misunderstanding. When there is to be a prompt response to a command, it must be given in such manner that the child will fully appreciate its meaning. A word does not always have the same meaning for a child that it does for a parent, and this is frequently the cause of misunderstanding, the reason why the child fails to obey.

What Constitutes Authority

When we make use of the word "authority," we do not mean anything allied to harshness. In fact, in the exercise of authority over children, much more progress can be made through the agency of gentle measures. Gentleness is much more efficient in its results, because, by its proper exercise, it fosters and does not detract from the natural affection which all children have at some time for all parents. The repeated application of harsh methods, in securing obedience, is as harmful as it is unnecessary,

and is sure to bring about in the child a feeling of rebellion.

Danger of Gentleness

On the other hand, gentle measures may easily be carried to an extreme. When they are, it is usually because the parent wishes the child to have a deep love for the parent and through fear of stifling that love fears to insist upon obedience.

Any healthy and normally developed child soon shows more or less contempt for one whom it can absolutely rule. This attitude is brought about largely through the fact that the child does not realize its place in the world; gratitude does not appear prominently in early life, but is a virtue of rather late development. The young child is incapable of appreciating all the sacrifice that the parents are constantly making for its welfare; any appeal along this line to secure obedience is doomed to prompt failure. The parent who allows acts of disobedience to pass unnoticed because of fear of lessening the child's affection, is doing the very thing which will most surely bring about the result they most fear.

Appeals to Reason

There is some good in the arguments of those who claim that a child may be governed by an appeal to its reason, but a great

deal depends upon the age of the child and the application of the method. It is, on the whole, not a perfectly safe procedure. The reasoning powers of a child are of rather late development and, during the period of development, require the same diligent care and guidance as any other important faculty. While it is a difficult matter to place all children in divisions or classes, the statement may be made that, so far as the government of the child is concerned, an appeal to its reason is almost useless under the age of six years, because, before that age, its powers have not been properly aroused.

The Power to Reason

And, again, the power correctly to reason is a matter of long and patient training, and while this training is going on, the child is incapable of proper self-control; therefore, the authority of the parent must be complete. Sooner or later there must be an appeal to the child's reason, and every child must be taught to decide for itself, so that it will be able to make a right choice without the constant intervention of the parent. But there is a preliminary training which must precede this, and that training involves compulsory obedience. Compulsory obedience is often hard for the child, as it does not un-

derstand the necessity for it, but it prepares him for later life when he will willingly submit to law because it is for his good and the good of others.

And so the son or the daughter, who has been early taught to respect the commands of the parent simply on the basis of parental authority, later appreciates the value of such instruction and willingly submits to, and even anticipates, the wishes of parents.

Finding One's Self

Every child must find itself. This comes largely through the power of reasoning, and preliminary to that, the child must secure the necessary "poise" which comes from an intimate acquaintance with law. If this quality is markedly lacking, then we have what might be called "an insanity of the will." This is well illustrated in the case of the spoiled child. These unfortunate children have never been properly brought under the influence of authority, and even if they have reached the age at which we could normally begin to reason with a child, they are not amenable to such instruction, because they have not learned the primary principle of obedience irrespective of the reasons for it. The spoiled child is always the product of bad training.

Reasoning Never a Substitute for Authority

A word of caution in regard to the application of this method: reasoning must never be made a substitute for parental authority. Neither should there be any attempt to reason with the child while the act of obedience is unfinished. After complete obedience has been secured, then and only then may it be of considerable value to give the facts to the child (if it is of suitable age), taking up briefly both sides of the question, and by taking the lead in the matter, bringing the child to the right viewpoint.

And to make such an appeal effective, the child's mind must be concentrated on the immediate subject in hand. There must be no wandering of the thoughts into other channels, no matter how closely allied they may seem to be to the primary question. This concentration of the child's thought is an important, but oft-neglected, element in character-building.

The Use of Artifice

Some parents unfortunately believe they are justified in governing their children by means of artifice or trickery. This is because they have never fully realized that it is necessary to all child-government to establish confidence between the child and the parent. To secure this confidence, three

things are essential — gentleness, firmness, and absolute truthfulness. There can be no question that, for a time at least, a child may be beguiled into a semblance of obedience by artifice, but the moment the child discovers that the statements of the parent are lacking in truth, that very moment the confidence of the child is shaken.

It may be that the parent wishes to go out and leave the little one at home, but it rebels. To avoid what is called "a scene," trickery is used. The child may perhaps be told that the parent is going to the dentist, and that if the child went, the dentist would pull all his teeth out. Or the statement may be made that the parent is only going into the next room, and while some one else takes part in the deception by attracting the attention of the child, the parent stealthily leaves the house. The child soon learns that it was tricked, and the result is harmful. In this sort of government, there can be no permanency; the act of obedience does not enter into it at all as a factor; the child is merely tricked. The effect of such a procedure is bound to show itself in time, and usually quickly.

The result upon the child is that it be-

comes distrustful of all that the parent says and does. No matter how truthful the parent may be in all other things, the child's confidence, once shaken, is hard to reestablish, and it remains distrustful of all that is said. With immature powers of reasoning, the child soon attributes wrong motives to every act of that parent. Thus, a very costly price is paid for the small temporary gain of avoiding a possible scene. To bring this about, it is not necessary for the parent to tell a flagrant untruth, but the same disaster may follow such looseness of speech or action as will lead the child to mistrust. The untruth may be to the parent of no immediate importance, but the child, lacking the proper sense of proportion, does not appreciate that. The child is naturally imaginative, and when its suspicions are once aroused by the parent's trickery, it becomes more and more suspicious through the workings of that imagination. The actions of the parent are an example to the child, and so it soon learns the possibilities of deceit, and for that learning it can hold the parent responsible.

Results of Artifice upon Character of the Child

Some children are so constituted that, when once their confidence in the parent is

shaken, it is rarely, if ever, placed upon a firm basis again. Be zealous, therefore, parents, lest you knowingly or unthinkingly shatter that confidence.

Buying Obedience

Obedience should never be bought. In the effect upon a child there is a considerable difference between a possible reward for well-doing and buying obedience. Many parents do not give this matter much thought, and are therefore very apt to develop traits which are undesirable in their children. Just as soon as you begin to appeal to a child through its appetites and neglect to appeal to it through its intellect and moral sentiments, you begin to lower its ideals.

It is inevitable that a continued appeal to a baser motive will help to strengthen and develop it. If these are developed and the higher motives are neglected, it will not be long before the baser ones will predominate over the higher ones, and they will become the prominent feature in that individual's character.

Dangers of Buying Obedience

Buying obedience is a habit into which it is easy for parents to fall, because it does not seem at first as tho it could be harmful. But it is not uncommon to find children who

are so perverted that they will not do anything without questions as to what they are going to get for it. Even in the most common acts of obedience, they look for the price. And as this habit grows in the child, the commercial spirit is so well developed that the child becomes more and more exacting in the nature of its demands and the value of its price. Is it any wonder that such a child becomes ungovernable and innately selfish when it has been subjected to such training?

XIII

PUNISHMENT

PUNISHMENT may be regarded from two standpoints. First, as a penalty demanded by the principles of justice; and, secondly, as a measure which will deter the individual directly affected by the infliction of the punishment from a repetition of the offense which brought it about, or through him as an example, acting in a like manner upon others.

Objects of Punishment

In regard to the child, punishment must always have as its aim the second point of view; it must act as a deterrent to the child or to other children. If this is always kept in mind, the methods of punishment would be different from those usually carried out, and with such modification they would prove more effective. There are three degrees of violence commonly used in the punishment of children, and all need a thoughtful consideration. These are bodily punishment, frightening, and reprimands.

Bodily Punishment

We will first consider bodily punishment. This degree of violence should be reserved for the most extenuating circumstances. It is rarely a method which is at all beneficial in its ultimate results, and in most instances defeats the very object aimed at in its infliction. In every instance it adds more or less nervous shock to the punished child. If the child is one who is already under some nervous strain, or is naturally of a nervous temperament, its infliction invites disaster.

Physical Basis of Moral Faults

It is not infrequently the case that an apparent moral fault has as its foundation some physical deformity, or abnormality, and no amount of physical punishment will correct it. In such instances, the correction of the physical fault is all that is necessary when coupled with proper training.

Dangers of Bodily Punishment

There is one consequence of bodily punishment which is extremely dangerous; it excites and brings into play the very baneful feelings of great fear, of anger, and of bitter resentment against the one who inflicts it.

No parent can well afford to overlook or disregard this influence, for it affects the child's character to a marked degree. Irrespective of this, however, there is the element of danger which comes from the in-

Injustice of Bodily Punishment

fliction of bodily punishment while the parent is in an angry mood. The child quite naturally thinks that this sort of punishment is an injustice, that it is out of all proportion to the offense, and is an outlet for the anger of the parent. Often he is right. He knows that, when angry and unrestrained, he feels relieved if he is allowed to kick over a chair, or violently throw about a toy, and he can only be filled with the idea that the parent inflicts punishment of this kind as an outlet for temper, the only difference being that the child becomes the object in place of the chair or toy.

When one is angry, he is rarely discreet, and, therefore, such punishment may be inflicted as will result in permanent physical harm to the child. Instances are rare, indeed, where corporal punishment can take the place of other methods. There is no denying the fact that, in a very few rare instances, its infliction seems to have brought about salutary results. But it must always be reserved for these rare occasions and the infliction of it must only come after most serious consideration by the parents. Neither should corporal punishment be undertaken while the child is angry, for at

such a time its effect can not be beneficial. If the child has been taught obedience early, the infliction of this punishment will never be necessary. Its chief use seems to be for the early eradication of habits which the child has acquired from being spoiled.

Slapping and Striking

Slapping and striking a child about the head is to be particularly condemned, because it is so senseless and merely an expression of anger at the moment. There is, perhaps, no one who would promise a child such punishment for a later period in the day and then carry it out, with any thought that it would be of benefit; second thought immediately condemns it.

Every other means of control should be used before resorting to corporal punishment, and then, when the decision has been made to inflict it, it should be resorted to as an extreme measure and as privately as possible. The impression should always be left in the mind of the punished one that if he tries (even tho he may not always succeed) to do right, the punishment will never again be inflicted. Begin by attempts to influence the higher attributes in the child's nature, a descent to the lower (the purely physical) should only come as a last resort.

Influencing Higher Motives

It may justly be doubted if corporal punishment is ever really remedial. Naturally, we are apt to recall our own experiences; we may have been often whipt and we may doubt if it ever did us any harm. The real question is, whether it really did us any good? We may not realize, even in our adult days, the incalculable harm which was done by such treatment. At least, let us give our children the credit of being more sensitive and of finer feelings than we were, and then spare them the degradation of the infliction of corporal punishment, either as undertaken by ourselves or another.

Even at its very best, this type of punishment does no more than exact obedience through fear of physical pain, and as there is no high motive aroused, it does nothing to ennoble the child's character; but it may do much harm through the excitation of baser emotions and the loss of self-respect.

Frightening

In some households there are those who have more or less care and supervision of children, and yet who are unable to punish them in any other manner than by frightening, and, therefore, they select this as their favorite method of attempting to control the child. Nursemaids are particularly apt

to make use of this method. It merits our most severe condemnation, for its effect upon the child can not be anything but harmful. Even tho it secures the immediate object in view, it does so at the expense of the child's nervous system.

Breaking the Will

In former times it was considered quite essential that a child should show fear toward its elders. If the child lacked this quality, it was usually considered the duty of the parent to thrash him into what was called a "spirit of proper reverence"; or, in other words, there was an attempt made to "break his will." Happily, those times are past, and as we understand the child better, we do not attempt to break its will. The process, no matter how carried out, is always a cruel and unnecessary one, and if a parent is confronted by a will which is strong enough to suggest the thought of its breaking, it shows a fault in the earlier management of that child.

Child Naturally Fearsome

We are fully aware that children, and especially little children, are by nature fearsome. But fear of physical pain, or of an apparent danger, does not mean that the child is a coward. All children differ in this regard, and what will arouse great dread in

one child will have little effect upon another. From a knowledge of the immediate and remote effects of frightening a child, I am assured that a large part of the self-consciousness, the introspection, the nerve exhaustion and hysteria of later childhood and adult life, had their beginnings in the repeated awakenings of fear in the young child.

How to Meet Childhood Fears

The proper way to meet the fears of childhood is, not in any way to use them as a means of correction; the constant attitude should be one of sympathy and explanation, and the cause of its fears should be removed whenever possible. A child who has no fears of any kind is nearly an idiot; the parent who enlarges upon those which the child naturally has is nearly as hopeless. Young children particularly are often injured by stories which have in them the elements which excite great fear. The natural freedom and courage of many children has been destroyed by the terrors caused by such stories of the "charcoal man," the "bugaboo," and the "policeman."

Frightening as Cause of Mental Suffering

Some children live in almost constant dread of imaginary persons and things which may do them harm; the fright of the

daytime often becomes the dread of the night, and the child is restless and uneasy in its sleep, or suffers from night terrors (see page 66). "The black man will take you"; "The doctor will cut your tongue off"; "The policeman will take you"; "That dog will bite you, if you are not quiet"; these and countless other thoughtless, but nevertheless brutal, threatenings are responsible for a large proportion of the nervous shock of childhood, and cause an enormous amount of immediate and remote suffering in the child.

Reprimands

There are many times when a sharp, short reprimand will immediately command the attention of the child and result in prompt obedience. To be effective, however, its repetition must not be frequent. Only in the most trying circumstances should the reprimand be used toward the older child while there are others present, particularly strangers and other children. The main reason why the reprimands of many parents are ineffectual is that they have become too frequent, or have degenerated into the pernicious habit of scolding.

Nagging and Scolding

One of the most certain ways to make a child careless, wilful or indifferent to what

is said to it is continually to nag at it. This habit, which many otherwise cautious parents fall into (of frequently scolding), destroys the finer sensibilities of the child and brings into play motives which should not be aroused. Quickly added to this is an indifference displayed to all commands. When any normal child is continually found fault with, he will sooner or later respond to such treatment by assuming that he does not know how to do the right, and, therefore, there is little use in his trying. Let him once become strongly imprest with the idea that he is always doing the wrong, and he loses a large part of his self-respect, and in such a state of mind is not amenable to proper control.

He becomes discouraged, and a discouraged child is incapacitated to a large extent for mental or moral guidance. Scolding (which is in no way allied to a proper reprimand) has no place in child-government.

Threatening

Parents should be very cautious in the use of threats. If they are used at all, they should be undertaken in a very guarded way. It is much safer to say, "If you do that I shall be compelled to punish you," rather than make a definite promise of what that

punishment will be. Time and time again threats are made of future punishment, and when the time comes to carry them out, parents dare not do so, because they realize that, in their haste and anger, they threatened to do what they dare not.

It is a common experience to overhear mothers threaten to throw their own children out of a car-window, to give them away to the rag-man, to break their necks, to "beat the life out of them," and to do various other impossible and improbable things. They never have any serious thought of doing any one of these acts. They have fallen into the error of giving way to their baser feelings, and this is coupled with looseness of speech, which is largely the result of habit.

Effect on the Child

It is interesting to watch the child of such a parent. He listens to threats with every indication that he knows they will not be executed, but also with evidences of irritation at having been threatened. A child soon learns whether one is sincere or not. If he realizes that the parent is insincere, he becomes at first indifferent, and finally loses that feeling of respect for the parent which every parent should covet.

A law unenforced soon becomes a dead letter; we as citizens lose respect for such a law and quickly forget it. Threats which are not backed up by carrying out their provisions suffer the same treatment with the child. Temporary obedience may be secured in some instances by a threat, but it is only temporary, and the effect upon the character of the child is not of the best.

Threatening Future Punishment

I must speak also of another form of threatening, which can not be condemned too severely—that is, the habit of threatening future punishment. It may be a father who says, "Wait until I get home to-night, and then," etc., or a mother who says, "Oh, when I get you in the house" (then follows the threat). Whether or not there is actually an intention to carry out the prescribed punishment, the effect upon the child is the same. It lives in dread of what may take place; many of its hours are made unhappy with the thought and its natural freedom is checked by dread. Besides this, the sensitive nervous system of the child suffers serious shock. There is no need in such methods, and they are cruel. They do the child an injury and never benefit it. If punishment needs to be carried out, it should

not be threatened. The time to concentrate the child's thought is the time when the punishment is administered and never before.

One Parent Threatening Punishment By the Other

One of the most pernicious habits is that of one parent threatening the child with punishment from the other. To the child's mind such a threat is a confession of weakness, and so the confidence in that parent is weakened, while fear of future punishment does the harm which has been previously mentioned.

Parents Acting as a Unit

There ought to be some settled policy of government in every family; parents should act as a unit. Never should one parent criticize the acts of the other before the child. Even if one is at fault, the time to draw attention to that fact is while the child is absent. If the father, in his hasty anger, reprimands the child too severely, it should go uncommented upon by the mother until such time as the matter can be talked over by both parents. Criticism of one parent by another before the child tends to detract from the respect which the child should have for that parent.

XIV

GENTLE METHODS IN GOVERNMENT

TO apply gentle methods effectively, there must be some definite plan which will be followed as closely as circumstances at the time will permit. As there is an absence of anything harsh or unkind in the application of such methods, it is necessary to appeal to the child's better nature; to awaken its conscience. Before this can be effective, the child must be instructed in what is right and what is wrong; otherwise he will make no intelligent choice. Naturally, most of the methods here suggested are for children who have received this instruction. Such teaching can be made efficient by having the child know that any thought or act which injures the child or another person is wrong, and that every thought or act that is of help to it or to others is right. That is the main proposition, but to make it effective it must be placed before the child in a definite manner.

For instance, tell the child that it is wrong to be idle, to be unhappy, to be indifferent or disobedient; and, on the other hand, that it is right to be busy, to be happy and to make others so, to pay attention to parent and teacher and to be obedient. This must not be done all at once, but only as particular occasions allow the subjects to be introduced. At such times the child will be prepared for definite instruction, and it will be more lasting in effect. In this way we draw attention to specific things, and that is what the child needs. Not until the child has been so instructed is it capable of making a positive selection between right and wrong.

Teaching Positive Virtues

It is always better to lay emphasis on what is right, rather than upon what is wrong. Positive virtues are the better. Teach the child that it has within itself the ability to do what is right. Emphasize this until the child becomes fully conscious of it. This will strengthen the child's will to do right and encourage it in the upbuilding of character.

Using "We" in Place of "You"

I believe that there is a very decided advantage in using the word "we," rather than the word "you" in teaching children the differences between right and wrong. If the

statement is made, "You must be good," "You must be happy," it is less effective than if we said, "We must be good," "We must be happy." The plural at once secures the child's cooperation, because it leads him to the thought that right conduct is the duty of all, and not that of children alone. If a child is to be successfully influenced by the application of gentle methods in government, the right time must be chosen to apply them. This time is when the child's mind is in a receptive mood, when thoughts are not distracted by other things, and when it is possible to arouse the affections.

Evening Conference

Thus, the best time is when the child is "good." In the necessary rush of modern life, the best time usually comes with the evening hour, the few minutes preceding sleep. The wife who should approach her husband asking cooperation and favors when he is tired and cross would probably fare ill. Then why attempt to deal with a more sensitive being, the child, when its spirit is one of rebellion or it is tired and cross? For mothers who take personal delight in seeing their little ones tucked safely into bed, the hour of bedtime offers a wonderful opportunity for character molding.

When the day is over, work put away and the hour for rest has come, what better time can there be than this for a conference between parent and child? This is the hour when the child should be led to speak freely of its troubles and mistakes, and should be able to tell them into a sympathetic ear. This is not the time for harsh words, sharp criticism or rebuke, for if the child realizes that it will be treated in this manner when it confesses a fault, it will learn to withhold that confession, and even be led to deceive. Always be ready to forgive a confest error, and then, having forgiven it, do not refer to it again.

The aim of the parent at this time should be to correct and strengthen the highest ideals, so that right may predominate in the future. To accomplish that it is not necessary to inflict punishment for past errors.

Introducing the Subject

It is usually best to introduce the subject for correction in a roundabout way, beginning, perhaps, with a story which in its main features parallels the thing which needs correction. Fictitious names may be used and the child is then led into expressing an opinion as to the various acts of these fictitious persons. Even while the story is

being told, it may see an analogy between it and his own acts. Then, when the child has made his decision, clinch it quickly with just as few words as possible and make a short appeal to the child's better nature. Do not sermonize. Then follow with the word of encouragement, "I know that you are going to try to do better after this; you can be good and you are going to, I know." Then comes the word of good cheer and caresses; the child is left happy, contented and more amenable to moral guidance.

The Word of Cheer

Such a course has an immediate salutary effect upon the child. There is no shock to the nervous system; cooperation is secured; the best side of the child's nature is awakened. One such lesson must not be expected to suffice to reform a child. One of the laws of teaching is repetition, and it requires considerable patience and many such conferences before the best effects will be noticed.

Morning Conference

When time will permit, it is advisable to have a few minutes alone with the child in the morning for affirmation. The same attitude should then be shown as at the evening conference, but affirmation now takes the place of confession. The parent must take

the lead, always using such statements as, "Now, to-day, we are going to be kind and happy," or, "We are going to do better than yesterday," always making the virtues positive and not negative. This plan fixes in the child's mind the importance of a specific duty, and secures his cooperation. It is also a preparation for the evening conference, which is of a different nature and has a different purpose.

These two methods, used in the proper spirit and with the degree of patience requisite, are the most valued factors in the government of children and the upbuilding of their characters. Every parent should covet opportunities for the molding of the characters of children.

XV

THE MORAL FAILINGS OF NERVOUS CHILDREN

THE more we study the child the more firmly convinced we become of the fact that moral defects are frequently dependent upon some physical fault. Without repeating, let us refer again to the chapters on "Education" (see page 100), where it was shown that physical defects are commonly the cause of inability properly to educate the child. But this is more certainly true in the moral training. Such individuals should be dealt with patiently until the true cause of the moral defect is discovered. It is a common experience to find that, after a protracted or serious illness, a child, who previously was good-natured and obedient, becomes self-willed and peevish during convalescence.

We must always allow for the factors of age, environment, heredity and the child himself in our dealings with these defects.

Consideration for Others

When the age of five years has been reached, if the child has been properly guided, he will show considerable consideration for others, and this will not come in response to command, but will be the free-will act of the child.

Right and Wrong

At seven, he should know clearly the difference between right and wrong. We do not mean by this that he can then decide finer questions of duty and morals, but he will be able to discern what is right from what is not. And having that power, he is accountable for his acts, if normally developed. If there is a failure at this age to discern these clearly, the child should receive the benefit of a thorough physical examination to discover the fault.

Lying

Because a child tells an untruth he is not of necessity a liar. An apparent untruth may be told because the child is timid under examination, and losing control of himself, says what he does not mean. Adults commonly do this in courts; to the child, questioning is often as much dreaded as the witness-chair is to an adult. Other children tell untruths because they are absent-minded. It is common for them to do so, because they do not fully understand the question put to

them. These facts seem simple enough, and yet, if they are not recognized, the child may be falsely accused of lying, and his nervous system will suffer thereby further shock.

Romance-Weaving

Romance-weaving is not uncommon among children who are blest with vivid imaginations. The difficulty is that the child has not been taught to make distinctions between the truths of allegory and those of fact. The imagination is valuable, but needs early guidance, so that it will not be the master but the servant of the child.

The desire to appear prominently before others (a dramatic instinct) is often the cause of romance-weaving. The best way to treat this latter is to receive the statements of the child without comment and without apparent interest. When he finds that he has not an appreciative audience, he will be cured of this habit. In a few instances, the fault indicates some impending illness, or it may be due to lack of control, which is marked in nervous children after an acute illness. Parents should show considerable patience toward children who are apparent liars, and every effort should be made to determine whether there is a physical basis for the moral fault.

Stealing

Stealing is not as common as untruthfulness, and usually takes the mild form of the pilfering of jellies or sweets. Thus, frequently we find the physical basis right there in the demand of the system for more sugar. Some children will take from others what they consider trifles, merely from a desire to possess, and would not think of appropriating anything of great value. Such a child does not consider this a form of theft, and if rudely awakened to the fact that it is, will suffer marked nervous shock. In a hysterical desire to ingratiate themselves with parents or teachers, some children will steal money and other valuables, but always with a desire to give it to others and reserve none for themselves.

Dealing with Thefts

Now, in dealing with any of these forms of theft, the child must not be accused of being a thief; neither must his act be called theft. It must be clearly shown to him that the act is not right; that he has no right to anything which belongs to another, and then the promise may be exacted that he will respect these rights in the future. The child should not be imprest with the full gravity of the offense, because he will then be in dread of the punishment which he

sees meted out to ordinary thieves. But the parent must not overlook even apparently harmless pilfering of sweets. A continuance of such habits may lead to the taking of valuables, and it must be checked as soon as possible.

Cruelty

One of the most trying faults to combat in nervous children is cruelty. Fortunately, it is not a common one. The difficulties of its early eradication are made possible by the many examples that the child sees of what is apparently deliberate cruelty carried on by adults. He can not see why it is not wrong to trap and kill mice, to kill fowl, to use worms as bait or to catch flies. He justifies his own acts by those of others. This is what makes the problem a particularly hard one to solve, and it requires the most patient handling to set the child right. Single acts of cruelty in the child need not be a cause for alarm, but persistency in such acts, or their occurrence in later childhood, should attract attention to both moral and physical needs.

Insolence

Insolence is a common fault. Correction of this fault is usually easy, since its causes are few and easy of remedy. Most often the child is insolent to the parents

and to others because it has been allowed the liberty of being impertinent to playmates or servants. The child should be early taught that it must address servants as well as others with courtesy, and the "thank you" and "please" should be insisted upon as a regular part of the conversation. The second cause comes through mimicry. The child observes a loose use of language among adults and free criticism of one another, with neglect of little courtesies because of intimate association. With strong desire to imitate, the child becomes impertinent and finally insolent. When these two chief causes are kept in mind, correction of this fault is simplified.

Fits of Passion

When the child has arrived at the period when it should normally exercise self-control, if it suffers from fits of passion or screaming, it should receive immediate medical attention. Of course, one can not expect a child to control its emotions when it has not been taught to do so, or when an example of the lack of control is always before it. It may at times be difficult to determine whether the passion is due to lack of training, or to lack of control from physical fault. But there are certain danger-

signs which indicate very clearly that it comes from a physical basis. These are partial insensibility to pain (as when the child knocks its head against the floor or wall, and apparently is unconscious of pain), a frenzy of passion and other passion excited by very slight causes. After the attacks are over, the normal child will be ashamed of itself, but not so with the other type of child; the latter even goes so far sometimes as to deny the occurrence of the attack. Such a child requires skilled medical advice to prevent the probable occurrence of serious nervous disease.

Lack of Moral Consciousness

Lack of moral consciousness can only be determined as existing after a most exhaustive study of all the facts relating to that particular child. It must be proven that the acts under consideration are persistent and unprovoked (or come from only the slightest provocation), and that the child can not be brought to a realizing sense of the nature and quality of his acts. Too much stress can not be placed upon the intellectual qualifications of the child, because there is not always a deficiency in this matter. In fact, the most dangerous cases are those children who have the combination of

an acute intellect with a blunted moral sense. In justice to the child, it is necessary that the examination be one extending over a considerable period, that it be most searching, and that it be carried out under skilled medical advice.

XVI

THE CHILD'S LITERATURE

AS in everything else, the child should be allowed considerable freedom in its reading and in the selection of its books. While the parent must act as adviser and guide, there is some danger from too narrow restrictions.

The Child's Own Choice

The child should always be made to feel that it has a voice in the selection. When the child's reading is too much specialized by the parent, it has an unwholesome effect; the child will make much of its own reading and belittle that of others. The child's literature must not be cramped within arbitrary bounds. Some writers have claimed that the best way to educate a child is to turn him loose in a library of carefully selected books and leave the rest to individual choice. But such methods are not safe; taste for the proper kind of literature is decidedly a matter of training. If uninstructed, the child will gather literary tares

as well as literary wheat. There is real need for the child to be taught the value of literature and of certain books, because, with an appreciation of their value, there will come desire for their use.

Guiding the Choice

The best way is to give the child free rein, and while things are going well, allow individuality to assert itself, but there must be constant supervision to see that the reading is kept within proper bounds. The hardest problem with which the parent will have to deal is the gift-book. This volume comes unsolicited and as a token of regard, but its selection is more often due to its appearance and its price, rather than its literary worth. The only way to deal with this situation is early to instruct the child to make wise selections under your advice. Only in this way will the less desirable books remain unread, altho they may still be appreciated as gifts.

In securing this, there are two sets of books which are above the average in helpfulness, because they represent the best in the literature that appeals to the average taste of the young child, and thus, with its interest aroused, future guiding is made an easier matter. These sets are "The Chil-

dren's Hour" and the "Every Child Should Know" books.

After the child has been started aright, there may be more freedom and less restriction. A great help by way of suggestion to any parent will be "literary landmark" books, which place clearly before you lists of the best books in the world, and arranged in such manner that the parent can readily make a selection of such books as are suitable for reading at various ages.

Then, even with these helps in hand, there should be an appreciation of these general principles; the chosen volume must appeal to the child's own particular bent of mind; it must be a volume of real worth; and it must not be arbitrarily chosen without consulting the child. Small reading clubs or circles are very desirable, if they are dominated by an older person who can suggest the various kinds of reading for the children. As a volume is purchased and read, it is passed along to other members in rotation, and finally returns to the owner. These reading circles should not be large (three to five children are the best numbers), and when a book has been read and favorably commented upon, encouragement

Reading Clubs

should be given to add it to the library. This association, with others, stimulates interest in literature to a marked degree, and allows an interchange of thought and comment which is a valuable asset in the child's literary education. Such a circle keeps up an interest which might otherwise flag at times.

XVII

THE CHILD'S FRIENDS

IF a child has been brought up to understand that he has the full sympathy and cooperation of his parents in all that he does that is right, and that there is nothing that concerns his well-being or happiness which is too trivial for the parents, there will be little, if any, difficulty in the selection of his companions. But if, on the other hand, he is made to feel that his varying emotions are too insignificant to be regarded; that, when he is at home he must be under restraint, and that his natural impulses are not dealt with kindly, he is sure to seek the companionship of his fellows-in-misery. In adult life the generalization holds true that those who have interests and aims in common will gather together. But this is more forcibly true during childhood; those of like disposition and environment are those most apt to become chummy.

Friends in the Home

The place for the friends of a child is occasionally the home of that child. Parents

must recognize that when children get together (and particularly boys) there is apt to be some noise, and possible disorder for the time, but the best way to study the companions of the child is in this situation. If supervision (unconscious to the child) is had in the home while the child and its companions are enjoying their unrestrained play or games, and if companions have been admitted into the home with a cordiality and frankness which show that they are not regarded with suspicion or prejudice, a much better estimate can be obtained of their desirability as friends. As much as possible parents should show interest by taking a lead in such matters as the formation of clubs, games, and so forth.

Cooperation of Parents

It is surprizing how enthusiastic most parents become in this matter when it has been brought to their attention and the attempt is made to follow it. Time and time again I have had my suggestion received with some doubtings as to its feasibility, and it has been accepted somewhat as a duty. Not long after most of these parents become most keen in their planning and enter into the matter in a spirit which is refreshing to them and helpful to the child.

Undesirable Friendships

If it is decided that a certain companion is undesirable for association with the child, the effort to break up the friendship should be undertaken guardedly. It is unfair to the friend concerned to make your decision public talk, and, therefore, the matter should be adjusted without any display or comment to others, such as "I would not let my child play with that boy." Your reason for ending the friendship may be a good one, but it may not hold good for other instances. I am convinced that the effect of companionship upon the child is overestimated; parents are usually eager to lay to the influence of some particular boy or girl faults in their own child which are often the direct result of improper supervision and training at home. Watchful care in the home and confidence between parent and child are the most certain safeguards against the influences of companions out of the home.

Terminating Friendships

In terminating a friendship the cooperation of the child should be secured. No word of reproach should be uttered against the companion, however; it may be suggested to the child that, among his other friends, are those who are more desirable. Then, when the time of planning an outing

or game at the home occurs, the parent taking the lead withholds the invitation from the undesired one. Thus, gradually the child is weaned away from that one. On the other hand, if the case is not handled carefully and the child is simply forbidden to have anything to do with a certain friend, he feels that the friend has been misjudged and resents it. The other fellow, knowing that he is antagonized, is apt to make it unpleasant in many ways. The whole matter of the child's friendships may be solved by the attitude of the parents. If they are too busy or too careless to become the companions of their own children and enter into the spirit of their activities, they can not reasonably expect to influence those friendships. On the other hand, if the parent assumes the right attitude toward the child, he or she is the very best friend that the child has, and when this is realized by that child, the oft-quoted "Evil associations corrupt good manners" is robbed of most of its significance.

Mixed Companies

There should be every effort made to have children play in mixed companies until the age of twelve or thirteen years. Of course, in many games there is a distinct division

made between boys and girls, but in the general plan of companionship boys and girls should be encouraged to be together. Even at the later age, no encouragement should be given to plans which draw marked attention to the differences between the sexes. A great deal of harm comes to children (and particularly to sensitive, nervous ones) from thoughtless teasing by their elders in regard to their companionship with those of the opposite sex. If such a companionship becomes so marked that it will readily fall under the caption of "calf love," then it must be gently but firmly checked, and in the doing of it it is advisable to seek medical advice, for most of these children are abnormally emotional.

XVIII

THE CHILD'S AMUSEMENTS

MUCH that has been said in the chapter on "The Child's Friends" will apply to the child's amusements, and the reader is advised to read that chapter as a preliminary to this. The attitude of the parent toward the friends of the child is very important, and is closely interwoven with the control and guidance of the child's amusements.

Children are educated and developed mentally and morally by the things which are of greatest interest to them. Therefore, it is of prime importance that some of their amusements be considered, because they make up so large a part of their lives.

The Theater

And we consider first, the theater. Long before the time arrives when the average child can go into one of these institutions, he is intensely interested in all that pertains to it. There is everything favorable to this interest; companions relate their experiences in glowing terms and the

constant change of bill-boards as newer attractions arrive tends to keep up the excitement and interest by variety. Now, here is a means by which the child may be educated; the things learned may be debasing and tend to blunt the moral sense or they may help in the molding of character. This is a problem which we can not at the present time deal with theoretically. We may talk about proper censorship and various other suggested remedies, but the facts remain the same; the children are interested intensely, and the dangers to morals are great.

There are put upon the stage to-day plays which are good, clean and elevating; plays which, in the impress they leave upon the mind of the child, are beneficial. No matter what the personal attitude of a parent may be in regard to the theater, there should at least be a careful consideration of the desirability of allowing the older child to witness one of the best plays occasionally.

In fact, the question is, can we afford to neglect this phase of our present-day education? Our children are not only receiving their education in the home, in the public schools, which are under admirable control, and in the churches; the teachings of the

theater can sometimes outweigh the influence exerted by the church, and even the school, and the home may suffer in some instances by comparison.

Of course, the problem is one that must finally be determined by each parent for the individual child, but it is a problem that requires much thoughtful consideration, and must be approached without preconceived notions and prejudices.

The theater, no matter how elevating it may be, is no place for the younger child, or for one that is nervous and emotional. Both classes of children lack the necessary self-control, and the immaturity, or instability, of their nervous systems invite the excitation of emotion beyond what is desirable.

Various Amusements

In their amusements, children like to imitate, and a proper supervision must be exercised over this tendency. On account of the moral element involved, the child should never be allowed to make an amusement out of sacred things. Imitation of a church service, a baptism, a wedding, or a funeral seem at first harmless in itself, but making an amusement of them blunts the sensibilities of the child. In regard to funerals, there

can be no objection if the child wishes to hold one over a dead pet, because in that instance it is not undertaken as an amusement, but indicates the feeling of a real loss.

Outdoor Amusements

Outdoor amusements are naturally the best, because they allow activities under the most favoring circumstances. There is a spontaneity also in such play which is desirable. In outdoor play, there should be encouragement of active games; the more passive ones may be reserved for the home. The child should be allowed those things which amuse, as well as act favorably upon his health (bicycle, velocipedes, skates, footballs and baseballs, etc.), as freely as the financial condition of the parent may allow, but with this restriction: if it is possible for the child to make an article for his amusement, he should be encouraged to do so. The wagon or sled made by the boy is of much more value to him and is kept in better condition than the boughten one. His own attainments will stimulate others to do similar things. Not infrequently the child can be made to combine work with play, and many are the things which the child can make or repair and find amusement in the doing, if the parent encourages it. Parents will have

to be very unselfish in the matter of amusements for their children; if necessary, their own must be restricted, or given up at times, for the sake of the child.

It is impractical to take up specific amusements further than has already been done, because generalizations will not always do. Take, for instance, dancing. There are so many sides to this question, and so many individual peculiarities are to be considered as to whether it will be advisable for a particular child or not, that we can not fully consider it. In all these matters, however, if the attitude of the parent is one of cooperation and sympathy with the child, and one of watchfulness over its mental, moral and physical good, the question of what amusements to allow, and what to restrict, will be simplified.

XIX

THE CHILD'S POSSESSIONS

EVERY child has a desire to own things; there are several reasons why this should be fostered. The three chief reasons are that it conduces to personal pride, personal cleanliness, and the upbuilding of character. Personal pride is inculcated more readily if the child knows that he has a personal possession of such things as clothes, books, games and so forth. In the feeling of ownership there is satisfaction present and an interest aroused which can not come in any other way. It is, of course, necessary that many things in the home be owned in common, but when this is the case it is easy to discern that the pride of possessing is not marked toward those articles. What is every one's property is not apt to receive the same care as individual possessions.

Guarding Against Selfishness

Naturally, with personal possession there is danger of selfishness, but this can be readily guarded against. It may require

some tact, and certainly requires real justice on the part of the parent to combat selfishness without being unjust. But children may be taught to share their things with one another amicably and yet feel that they retain their ownership. The child with whom the article is shared must also be taught that other children's property must receive extra care, and this is a lesson which is much needed at the present time when there seems to be a growing tendency toward disregard of the property rights of others. We see this continually among adults, and we can not but think that it is in large part due to the lack of early training. If a boy's clothes are continually shared with others, and a girl's hair ribbons and trinkets are common property, we can not, with reason, expect either of them to show much personal pride.

Personal Cleanliness Fostered by Possession

Personal cleanliness is promoted if the child has complete ownership in certain things and does not have to share them with others. I refer particularly now to such articles as tooth-brushes, hair-combs, brushes, handkerchiefs and the like. There are abundant sanitary grounds for personal possession of these and other things. Particularly when

the child reaches the school age is this precaution necessary. Children in school are exposed to various contagions and infections which are easily spread by the habit of allowing them to use toilet articles in common. It is useless to instruct a child in the necessity of bodily cleanliness, cleanliness of habit and of clothing, when at the same time we compel him to use these mentioned things in common with others. It is an easy matter with individual possessions to detect the beginnings of a careless habit in any one of several children, for if Mary's comb is left filled with hairs the parent knows it at once. But if several persons use the brush detection is impossible. The same applies to the throwing about of face-cloths and towels.

Possession a Guard Against Carelessness

The upbuilding of character is helped in no small degree by personal possession. Every child who has an ownership in anything should be early taught to take proper care of it. This leads to the upbuilding of character by eradicating a natural tendency to carelessness, which is inherent in most children. Inattention to this important element in the make-up of the child (order) will do much to destroy our teaching in

other things. Carelessness in the child makes extra work for others as well as harms the child. If these things are to be insisted upon and children are to be taught the right use of possessions and the valuable lesson of order, the parent must make ample provision for carrying out the scheme. If it is taught that there is a place for everything and everything must be in its place, the place also must be provided.

XX

THE QUESTION OF SEX

SOONER or later to every parent will come the question, "How much information in regard to matters relating to sex should I give to my boy or girl?" Questioning will become more and more insistent as the child grows older, so that the child who, by some direct inquiry or act brings the matter prominently to the attention of the watchful parent, will acquire what he is seeking, either from this source or he will obtain it elsewhere.

Naturally, the manner of approach to the child will be largely determined by the relations which the child and parent have assumed in preceding years. If the child has been accustomed to conferences with the parent, and has always been dealt with patiently, and its confidences have been received in a sympathetic manner, there will be no difference when questions in regard to more delicate matters arise.

But if accustomed to a prompt rebuff, or to inattention when bringing to the parent what to him was real and to his elders folly, and he has been turned away without sympathy, or with mere tolerance, nothing open and frank may be expected from that child. The fault is not with the child, but with the parent.

Ignorance Common

It is our common experience that children of both sexes may reach maturity without being fully aware of the processes of procreation. More often they have very much distorted ideas in regard to the matter. Now, the question arises, "Is it right for a parent to allow a child to grow up in ignorance or to become the victim of wrong impressions?" Many of these children grow up in ignorance because of their limited powers of observation in this line and their inability to draw inferences.

Harm in Ignorance

There is no doubt that much harm may be wrought by ignorance of this kind, or by implanting wrong impressions, and that dangers are undergone and calamity invited because of this ignorance. But, on the other hand, there is considerable danger in drawing attention directly to the functions which certain organs of the body may in the future

be called upon to perform. Much of the purity of childhood is born of ignorance; the child does not think of impure things, and, therefore, he is pure-minded. Questions relating to the matter of the sexes are not in themselves impure; it is the environment, or manner of handling, that makes them so. A statement absolutely pure in itself may be so uttered that one may hesitate again to repeat it in like manner. I do not think that it is a question as to how much information a child should have in these matters, as it is of how that information shall be obtained.

Dealing with Ignorance

By the exercise of judgment and an average amount of delicacy and firmness, the parent will be capable to cope with this problem and impart an amount of knowledge which will meet all the demands of the child's inquiry. The youthful mind can be imprest with proper ideals in such manner that there will be no danger to the child's sense of delicacy.

The Parent's Lack of Courage

Usually, with parents there is a feeling of fear which deters them from handling the question; this fear is the result of considerations of modesty, or it may be that the subject is one so fraught with the possibilities

of mistakes that the parent does not feel competent to handle it.

False Modesty

It is just this absence of courage that causes most of the harm. In regard to the first reason (modesty), the child is bound sooner or later to acquire knowledge, and if not from a proper source, then from a more dangerous one. Who is better equipped to handle this subject with the greatest delicacy and consideration for the best interests of the child than the father with his boy and the mother with her girl? Modesty about any question depends a great deal upon how the thing is handled. Usually, when modesty has been offered as the excuse, I have found that the parent had a wrong sense of this virtue. If the relation of the parent and child has been right beforehand, the instruction made necessary by the child's inquiry will be of greatest value if it comes from the parent.

Preparation for the Task

Sense of unfitness to handle the subject as it should be dealt with is more real than the excuse of modesty. There are, unfortunately, those who are not fitted to speak freely upon this subject, because of a lack of courage, coupled with a lack of knowledge. There needs to be some preparation

for it. The parent must know that he is to instruct and he must know how to impart knowledge. It is, therefore, unwise to wait until the problem confronts you. Forewarned is forearmed, and long before the possibility of having to meet it arises, preparation should be made by careful thought, careful reading, and the acquiring of an amount of knowledge requisite. The parent should be able to tell briefly how the body is constructed and how growth and development fit the child for the activities of life.

Watching for the Awakening

If these matters are clearly understood and an effort to go into the details is avoided, the talk with the child, in place of being one which is dreaded, will act as one of real profit and closer companionship. Unless the child makes early inquiries, the subject of the differences between the sexes should not be brought up. An observing parent will at once detect any signs or indications that knowledge is beginning. In this matter, that is the time for action. The child must be led unconsciously to indicate what amount of knowledge he has and its source.

Whether the parent takes the lead, or the child directly introduces the subject by some inquiry or suggestion, as little information

as possible should be offered until the time of puberty.

The Time Not to Tell

In their personal relations and games there should be little difference between the sexes until they have reached the age of twelve or thirteen; that is, there should be nothing to excite in them the thought that there are vast sex differences. It is, therefore, well to encourage friendships between the sexes, rather than have a boy with none but boy companions and a girl with none but girls. Even as the child reaches the age of puberty, when its intenser physical life and the tremendous changes which take place at that period become very evident, they need not be forcibly reminded of differences in the sexes. This is of particular importance at this period, because the nervous system is under a great strain, and there is no good which will come from deliberately exciting thoughts and emotions which will become prominent later on.

There should be no detailed information given at any time before puberty. While it may be wise to warn a child of the dangers which may confront it in a few particular instances, as a general thing it will be unnecessary and harmful, since the child tends to

enlarge upon the dangers spoken of. Nothing is gained by elucidation of unnecessary details, and, in fact, much should be left to inference. The child has reached the age when it thinks for itself, and the real necessity is that thought be guided along the right channels. One of the best methods is to teach the child the origin of plant life and of the development of the eggs of birds. In this way the child is taught to take an interest in these things, and his powers of observation are aroused and he makes his own inferences. These are drawn in a healthy way, and the knowledge so obtained helps the moral tone of the child instead of injuring it.

Teaching from Nature

Physician as Teacher

But how will the problem be handled in those instances in which, for some reason, the confidence which should exist between parent and child has never been established, or has been strained? It is just as necessary that these children be set right and be protected. In such circumstances, it is well to refer the case to the physician when the parent sees that information is becoming necessary and he can not give it. The physician should be made acquainted with all the facts beforehand, and then left to deal with

the problem as the needs of that particular child may indicate.

We do not advocate such transfer of responsibility, except as it has become absolutely necessary, on account of the parent's inability to cope with the problem.

XXI

EVIL HABITS

EVERY child has to be taught at some time to control its bladder and to indicate in some way when there is a necessity of emptying it. In not a few instances lack of proper training will cause the habit of inattention, which was acquired in infancy, to continue. With proper training, the little child will soon learn to indicate its desires. If the bed-wetting persists after a child has reached the age of three years and in spite of training, this is indicative of some serious fault in the nervous system, or in the general nutrition.

Bed-wetting

There are scores of reasons which are given as the real causes for the habit of bed-wetting; at first some of these seem to be reasonable, but their removal does not always remove the habit. While a very slight condition, such as worms, tight foreskin, etc., may be an exciting cause, there is always back of it a condition of the child's system which must be recognized and cor-

rected before any permanent good can be accomplished.

This condition of the system rests upon a combination of three things: An irritable nervous system, which may be inherited or acquired; an impoverished condition of the blood, and malnutrition. Not every child so affected will wet the bed; but, if added to these there is local irritation, that is sufficient as an exciting cause. And the habit once formed tends to continue.

Considerably more than half the cases of bed-wetting occur at night; a much smaller number of children lack control of the bladder during both night and day, while a very small per cent suffer through the day only.

Naturally, there are several degrees of trouble. One child will suffer incontinence once during the twenty-four hours, while another may offend several times. Generally, bed-wetting occurs within one or two hours after the child has retired and while sleep is most profound. There is no dribbling, the bladder is emptied at once and usually quite thoroughly.

Treatment of Bed-wetting

In corrective treatment for this condition, every means must be taken to remove all possible exciting causes and the general state

of health must be inquired into. To do this, requires the skill of a careful physician, and that should be sought. But, irrespective of the attention which may be given to the child's health and condition, there must be cooperation by the parent with the physician. Moral treatment is of just as much importance as medical and hygienic care.

Bed-wetting a Physical Fault

Bed-wetting is due to a physical and not to a moral fault; the child needs body care and not punishment. Neither should there be any threats made of punishment or any annoyance shown by the parent for the inconvenience caused by the child. If old enough, the child should cooperate in an endeavor to overcome the habit, and this cooperation must be secured by other means than "shaming" the child or scolding it.

An effort must be made to have the child hold the urine as long as possible with comfort during the day, because in this manner the bladder will become accustomed to hold a large quantity, and there will, therefore, not be as much danger during the night of the child's voiding the urine just as soon as the bladder becomes partly filled. After late afternoon (four or five o'clock) the child should be very much restricted in the

amount of fluid taken. In cases that are persistent, it is advisable to awaken the child one hour after retiring and have him void the urine at that time. Sometimes the elevation of the foot of the bed, raising it about two inches higher than the head, will help materially in relieving the desire.

No matter how simple the cause may seem to be, it will tax the patience and perseverance of all concerned in combating it, and while the effort is being made the child should be under the care of a physician.

Nail-biting

The evils of nail-biting and its consequences to the child are so self-evident that they need no lengthy description. While it is a habit, it is practically always dependent upon some fault in the child's general condition. It is a common thing to hear the statement made that this and other similar habits are merely due to nervousness in the child. There is truth in such a statement, but there the matter usually rests. The child who practises this habit is generally of a very nervous temperament and deprest, or is generally weak. Such being the case, there can be expected no permanent good results until the general condition is attended to and the main fault removed.

There is no question that painting the fingers with some bitter substance sometimes results in an apparently immediate cure because the child so dislikes the very bitter taste. But in these immediate cures the habit is broken up and the chances are that the underlying cause of the habit, the irritable nervous system, or malnourished body, is neglected.

Nail-biting does not usually exist alone; the child bites also the skin about the edges of the nail, and this is frequently pulled away in rather large pieces, leaving a much-denuded surface which invites infection. It is in this manner that many cases of bone-felon start; the danger of losing a part of the finger entire is not uncommon in this painful infection.

Head-banging

Head-banging is not a very uncommon habit in children who are nervous and excitable. In a large percentage of cases the head-banging is done while the child is in a fit of anger, but is usually done with sufficient care not to inflict severe injury or pain. The child may run to the wall and bang its head against it, or may lie on the floor and go through the procedure. In a few instances the child seems to experience

some unaccountable pleasure from banging its head with more or less force against some flat object, or from striking the head very forcibly with the fist or the open hand.

There is no associated pain in the head and it is purely a habit. When the child goes through the act as the result of an expression of displeasure, the same means must be used as would govern the control of any other evidence of temper. Altho it may not be harmful in itself or occasion any injury, still it is a habit which is not to be fostered or allowed to continue.

Thumb-sucking

Thumb-sucking is a bad habit. The little child by instinct carries many things to its mouth, and when anything is placed at its lips, the most natural thing for the infant to do is to suck. Now, when nothing seems to be handy, it may place its thumb in the mouth and use that member. In this manner the child, as it grows, almost insidiously takes up the habit, and what was done at first under the impulse of a perfectly normal instinct, becomes a fixt habit. One of the very reasons why the habit is allowed is because it apparently does the child no harm, but keeps it contented and happy, and the growth of the habit is unnoticed.

If, however, the child is allowed to continue the habit for a long time, it becomes very difficult to break it up, and it may be indulged in until the child is several years of age. I have occasionally had adults admit to me that they indulged secretly in the habit, even in their adult years, but this is somewhat rare.

The chief danger in the continuance of the habit is in deformity of the mouth, which will appear in later life. If the habit is not already well rooted, the thumb may be well covered with some bitter solution (quinine dissolved in alcohol, or aloes), so that the taste will make the child desist. But if the habit has been long continued, such simple means are ineffective and mechanical restraint may be necessary. The simplest means are a bandage applied to the thumb, or a mit or glove fastened to the hand. In other instances it may become necessary to apply a splint, or some other stiff material, to the arm and have it so placed that the child can not possibly bend its elbow; in this way, while the arm can be freely moved, the child can not carry the hand to the face.

Punishment in these cases acts as it does in most other habits—it does not cure, but

teaches the child to continue the habit in such manner that it uses deception in accomplishing its end. If the habit is formed by a child that is nervous, or not properly nourished, it is much more difficult of correction. Attention must always be paid in these instances to the general condition of the child.

Masturbation

Of all the evil habits, masturbation is the most serious. This habit exists more commonly than most parents are ready to admit, and when discovered it is generally by some one other than the father or mother. This is due, in part, to the prevalent blindness of parents to any serious faults in their children, but is more commonly due to ignorance, which makes early knowledge of the habit impossible. The very early age at which the habit may be contracted is one reason why parents do not detect it earlier. Often the habit has been a fixt one for months or even years before it is discovered. Thus, it is of prime importance that parents detect the very first signs of the habit and take means to correct it at once. After the age of three years it is not an uncommon thing to find thigh-rubbing and manipulations of the sexual organs a prac-

tise in both sexes. Nurse-maids are not entirely ignorant upon this matter and frequently, when a little child becomes troublesome or fretful, the sexual organs are handled by the maid, and the child, realizing a new sensation, becomes quieted. The habit may be formed in this manner.

Thigh-rubbing

Thigh-rubbing is generally accomplished with the child lying upon the back with the thighs flexed or crossed. Then, while in this position, the body is worked more or less violently up and down. Or the body may be held stationary and the thighs rubbed together, accomplishing the same results.

It is evident that these movements are attended with a certain amount of pleasure. The movement lasts only a few minutes, but during that time the child's face may be flushed. The act may be repeated several times during the day. Then follows a period of relaxation in which the child lies quiet or may be in a more or less dreamy state. During the daytime the child may rub its thighs against some article of furniture.

While this habit in itself does not prove very harmful to the child, it must be corrected at once, because it readily leads to the

more serious habit of true masturbation. Restraint is the proper method of procedure and some mechanical device must be placed to keep the thighs apart. Such an apparatus, even tho crude and cumbersome, will not interfere with the child's sleep, and even in that event it is much better to break up the habit even at the cost of a little sleep. There are devices made just for this purpose, but a home-made arrangement will often answer the purpose just as well.

Dangers from Ungoverned Associations

Masturbation is easily learned by children at school, because of their association with large groups of children, some of whom practise the habit. Therefore, at this time of life the parent must be keen to discover the possibility of its existence. In the matter of the sexual question, parents are, unfortunately, ignorant; when the child shows any sign of enlightenment, the subject is arbitrarily disposed of. What, then, has the child to do but to listen to stories told by school companions and learn from them. I am sure that it is an unwise step to warn the child in advance in regard to the matter, because by so doing we may excite a curiosity which may be harmful and which might have been quiet for a long time. But, with

the first enlightenment, the child may be warned of the dangers and encouraged always to talk to the parent on this matter, but never to his companions. The child must be imprest with the fact that talking about these matters must be indulged in on rare occasions only and then with the parent only.

When the habit is known to exist, every means must be taken to check it. Just here there is value in a frank talk with the offender, but that talk must be devoid of everything which is harsh or that in any way approaches scolding. By frankness we mean that the talk must be plain and not over exaggerated. There is a marked tendency to overstate the consequences and this is wrong. The child can not realize all of these and the good which might be accomplished is thereby lost.

Following the talk, there must be the offer of the parent to help in overcoming this habit, and there must be no threat of punishment for a future offense, because that will defeat the very object which we must have in view: securing the confidence of the child. Threats only make the child deceptive and secretive. The whole atti-

tude of the parent must be one of frank statement and warning of the dangers of the habit if it is continued, of intelligent enlightenment and avoidance of severity. Particular emphasis must be placed upon the consequence of continuance in the habit, because if that is not made clear to the child, he may think that what he has done has already brought about its consequences, and, therefore, he becomes disheartened and persists in the habit. The child should be encouraged to strive for mastery over the habit, and if necessary the warnings must be repeated from time to time.

If possible, the source of the habit should be sought and corrected. Not uncommonly the habit has its inception in some local irritation of the parts (the handling by a nursemaid, a tight or irritated foreskin, clothing which is too tight between the legs, heavy, hot bed-coverings, and so forth), and these must be corrected. Allowing the child to lie in bed inactive in the morning, with no healthful occupation for its mind, will foster the habit.

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